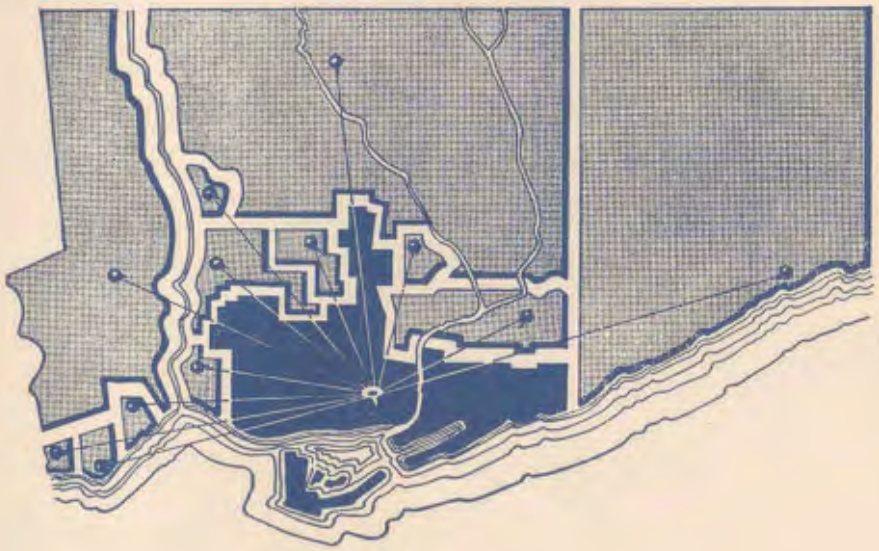
COMMUNITY PLANNING ASSOCIATION OF CANADA

COMMUNITY PLANNING REVIEW



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REVUE CANADIENNE D'URBANISME

L'ASSOCIATION CANADIENNE D'URBANISME

COMMUNITY PLANNING REVIEW

REVUE CANADIENNE D'URBANISME

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COMMUNITY PLANNING ASSOCIATION OF CANADA

L'ASSOCIATION CANADIENNE D'URBANISME

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Westminster Abbey and Annex *Courtesy U.K.I.O.*

EDITORIAL NOTES

THE post-war growth of Canadian cities has been beset by one most troublesome obstruction. Old-time municipal boundaries have partitioned many urban areas like old fences dividing a farm into small uneconomic patches. The centre of operations has been cut off from the outlying fringe of land where new development is taking place.

This separation of a city from its suburbs has stood in the way of sound community planning and the forming of comprehensive housing programs. In such cases the whole framework of urban management and tax resources requires to be broadened, in order to encompass the immense expansion of Canadian cities.

The new metropolitan municipality of Toronto, now created by an Act of the Ontario legislature, is an historic experiment in the evolution of Canadian governmental structure and an event that may have great effect upon the practice of community planning. It forms the subject of an article in this issue of the Review.

In commenting upon its recommendations for the establishment of the new Metropolitan Council, the Ontario Municipal Board has stated: "Any municipal financial burden or liability incurred in meeting the housing needs of the present or future population of the area should be shared by the entire area, and should not be imposed upon a single municipality. In the field of redevelopment it is the opinion of the board that the metropolitan area as a whole, in addition to making adequate provision for the outward extension of municipal services . . . must also protect its sources of tax revenue from fully serviced land in the older central areas. It cannot ignore the economic waste involved in the continued existence of large blighted areas. Fundamentally these areas of blight are a product of the same economy which has produced the attractive new residential and commercial developments in the rapidly expanding suburbs, and the net municipal cost of redevelopment should be considered a responsibility of the whole area. . . The proposed mobilization of all local resources to provide the schools and essential services required by an expanding population will be a major contribution to the solution of the housing problems of the area."

These are wise words and they express succinctly one of the central beliefs of community planners. An intelligent and efficient scheme of municipal services for a metropolitan area cannot be devised without a plan of development for the whole area and this must include the fringe areas into which urban population is moving. "It is an unfortunate fact," the Ontario Municipal Board states, "that most rural municipalities fail to recognize the need to control and direct their physical development until irreparable mistakes have been made. . . In the interests of both the metropolitan area and the municipalities beyond its borders, it is essential that a truly regional plan of development must be made. . ."

The planning of urban areas is an act of imaginative engineering, coupled with legal arrangements for the control of land use. But community planning is only wishful thinking if there is not an effective structure of local government to adopt and carry out plans. Canada is not the only country which has tried to devise forms of local government suitable for the large modern metropolitan area. Perhaps our successful political experience with federal forms of government gives us a considerable advantage in this task. If so, we may be successful, where others have failed, in making our big cities convenient and pleasant places in which to live.

In this issue we are happy to reprint an article from our esteemed English contemporary *The Architectural Review*. This admirably expresses our Canadian aspirations for the new reign that we celebrate this month. Here, too, our governments in the name of the Crown have special opportunities and responsibilities to encourage the arts of civic, industrial and architectural design.

This Association is itself sponsored by the Crown. It seeks to bring together governments, citizens and the professions in creating the kind of environment in which Canadians wish to live. During the Elizabethan age in Canada may we together build gracious and comely cities.

The Crown has also sponsored the cause of good industrial design in this country, through a branch of the National Gallery of Canada. We take this opportunity to welcome the opening of the new Design Centre in Ottawa, as an institution engaged upon a purpose akin to our own.

In this and other ways the Crown is the symbol of the dignity and beauty that people seek through the actions of their governments and agencies.

Notes de la Rédaction

L'ACCROISSEMENT des villes canadiennes après la guerre, a donné naissance à une constriction embarassante; les vieilles frontières municipales ont taillé nombre de zones urbaines comme de vieilles clôtures divisant une ferme en autant de lopins non profitables. Le centre des opérations s'est vu couper l'accès aux banlieues où s'accentuait le développement.

Cet écart entre la ville et sa banlieue empêche tout urbanisme bien compris et prévient la mise en œuvre d'un programme d'ensemble de logement. Toute la charpente de l'administration urbaine, ses sources de revenue sont à rebâtir sur des bases plus large si l'on veut permettre l'essor des villes canadiennes.

La nouvelle municipalité métropolitaine de Toronto, que vient de créer une loi du gouvernement de l'Ontario, est un évènement historique dans l'évolution de la structure du gouvernement canadien et un évènement qui promet du nouveau dans la pratique de l'urbanisme. C'est le sujet d'un article dans ce numéro de la Revue.

Dans des commentaires en regard de ses recommendations pour la création du nouveau conseil métropolitain, le "Ontario Municipal Board" dit: "Le fardeau financier ou dette d'une municipalité contracté pour subvenir aux besoins de logement de la population présente ou future doit être distribué sur tout l'ensemble et ne doit pas être imposé sur le seule municipalité. Quant au redéveloppement, c'est l'opinion de la Commission que l'ensemble métropolitain, en plus de prévoir sagement pour l'extension des services municipaux . . . doit aussi protéger ses sources de revenu tiré des vieilles parties complètement aménagées de la ville. Il ne peut ignorer la perte économique qu'entraine l'existence de zones dépréciées considérables.

Au fond, c'est la même économie qui est responsable et des zones dépréciées et des développements attrayants tant résidentiels que commerciaux des banlieues grandissantes, et le coût net du redéveloppement doit être la responsabilité de l'ensemble. . . La mobilisation de toutes les ressources, tel que proposé, afin de pourvoir à l'éducation et aux services publics indispensables à la population croissante sera une contribution essentielle à la solution des besoins de logement du territoire."

Voilà de sages paroles qui correspondent en peu de mots à une des principales convictions des urbanistes. Un plan intelligent et pratique de services municipaux pour une zone métropolitaine ne peut se concevoir sans un plan d'ensemble, ce qui inclus la banlieue vers laquelle s'échappe la population urbaine. "C'est dommage", dit encore le "Ontario Municipal Board" "que la plupart des municipalités rurales ne se rendent compte de la nécessité de controler et de diriger leur développement physique qu'après que des erreurs irréparables aient été commises. . . Dans l'intérêt de la zone métropolitaine tout autant que pour les municipalités en dehors de son territoire, il devient essentiel de prévoir un projet d'aménagement vraiement régional. . ."

L'aménagement du territoire urbain est une réalisation créative du génie conjointement avec des restrictions légales pour le contrôle de l'aménagement du sol. Mais l'urbanisme n'est qu'un rêve s'il n'existe pas un gouvernement local bien structuré pour adopter et réaliser les plans. Le Canada n'est pas le seul pays qui essaie la formule permettant à une autorité locale de controler un vaste territoire métropolitain moderne. Il est possible que la réussite de notre expérience dans la formule fédérative du gouvernement nous donne une avance appréciable dans cette entreprise. Si c'est vrai, nous réussirons, là où d'autres ont manqué, à faire de nos grandes villes des endroits commodes et agréable pour y vivre.

Il nous fait plaisir de pouvoir publier dans le présent numéro un article du *Architectural Review*, notre confrère anglais. Il réussit à exprimer nos espoirs au début de ce nouveau règne.

Car ici aussi nos gouvernements, par les représentants de la Couronne, ont la chance et le devoir d'encourager la qualité et la beauté au niveau civique, industriel, architectural.

Notre association elle-même doit son existence à la Couronne. Elle essaie d'amener gouvernements, citoyens, professions à mouler le milieu où, comme canadiens, nous aimons vivre. Puissions-nous sous ce nouveau règne construire ensemble nos cités sous le signe de la beauté, de la délicatesse.

La Couronne appuie aussi la cause de l'esthétique industrielle dans notre pays par l'entremise d'un département de la Galerie Nationale du Canada.

Nous en profitons pour saluer l'ouverture du nouveau Centre d'Esthétique Industrielle à Ottawa, en tant qu'œuvre intéressée dans les mêmes problèmes que nous. Ici comme ailleurs, la Couronne est le symbole de la dignité et de la beauté que nous cherchons dans la mise en œuvre de notre gouvernement et de ses responsables.

Dans cet article du numéro de janvier 1953 du "Architectural Review" les éditeurs font remarquer, à l'occasion du couronnement, l'importance de la Souveraine dans la qualité des édifices publics et même des objects qui sortent des ateliers commandités par ses ministres. Ils font ressortir que tout l'apparat de tradition ne doit pas nous aveugler; que cette tradition en somme, est bien vivante et qu'elle serait méprisable autrement. Ce qui importe, c'est la continuité; *ce qui est loin de l'uniformité dans le style. On reconnait que c'est moins le bon vouloir qui manque, que la manière de s'y prendre, et l'on espère que le règne d'Elizabeth II verra son épanouissement.*

FOREWORD*

As this year, 1953, progresses the thoughts of British people and of many people abroad will turn increasingly to the Coronation that is to take place in London in June. It will be everyone's prayer that it will inaugurate a long, a peaceful and a prosperous reign. The Editors of the *Review*,[1] in offering their loyal duty to their new Queen, consider that an architectural journal can most fittingly celebrate the occasion by devoting its first issue in Coronation year to looking forward to the progress in architecture it hopes to see as a consequence of the new reign.

A Coronation means a number of things architecturally; first of all street decoration, flags and bunting, the town en fete, and attention drawn thereby, it may be hoped, to the street as a thing in itself with its own rights and opportunities not as a mere aperture between buildings. But street decorations are no more than a passing show. The architectural implications go deeper. As well as being an occasion for loyal celebrations of all kinds, the Coronation inaugurates a reign and thus a regime, and presents an opportunity of taking stock of many things that, under a changed regime, may themselves be expected to undergo changes.

There are certain categories of design where a change must automatically be made simply because the objects designed bear the sovereign's head, the obvious examples being coins and postage stamps; there are other categories where changes will very likely be made, if not on the occasion of the Coronation, then as opportunity arises, because of the different tastes of a younger generation of royalty, whose choice naturally veers towards the products of their own age. Examples are the new royal trains, yachts and aircraft. By far the largest category, however, in architecture and the other applied arts, consists of those products which there is no compulsion to change unless it is realized how badly an improvement in design is needed. Some things need attention more urgently than others; hence the present necessity of taking stock.

The relationship between architecture and the Crown has evolved gradually since the days when its architectural interest and responsibilities were confined to the royal residences and estates. A Government Department that practices architecture in the name of the Crown is a comparatively new thing. Previously patronage was more personal. Direct dealings with architects by royalty reached a climax in the reign of the Georges. They have inevitably declined since then owing to the less personal part played by the Crown in day-to-day affairs of Government. Direct patronage has been replaced by a variety of indirect responsibilities, which Ministers shoulder on behalf of the Crown.

The principal Minister concerned is of course the

* Reprinted by permission of the *Architectural Review*.
[1] The *Architectural Review*, London, Jan. 1953.

Minister of Works, the variety of whose activities is immense. It is easy to forget that he is a direct descendant of the King's Surveyor General—and thus of Sir Christopher Wren and other famous public servants—and to identify the Ministry's activities simply with the Government rather than with the crown. We are constantly reminded that the postal services are a Royal enterprise by the sight of the Sovereign's head on the stamps and the monogram on the pillar-boxes, but when we enter a post-office, just as much as when we buy stamps, we are using designs—in the shape of architecture and furniture—done in the name of the Crown. The same applies to many other offices to which the public has access. Moreover a large proportion of the public itself works for the Government (that is, for the Crown) in the Civil Service and elsewhere, and spends much of its life surrounded by furniture, decorations and equipment designed in the name of the Crown.

Is not the Coronation an appropriate moment to ask ourselves whether these are the best our time can produce, and can we not suitably honour the Crown on this occasion by making the Coronation celebrations the first step towards bringing design in all these categories up to the highest standards? It would be easy, in criticizing design standards in official places, to illustrate the worst post offices and employment exchanges, with their all too common makeshift appearance, with their dreary air of squalor, their ink-bespattered counters and badly lettered notices peeling off the walls. We know that such places exist. But no one is proud of them and everyone is anxious to see them improved. Criticism is more usefully applied to designs that are supposed to be improved already; to those with which the officials seem to be satisfied, and to accept as a desirable standard.

The Crown builds and the Crown furnishes, and it also does a number of other things that involve design and therefore come within the scope of this issue. Coins and postage stamps have already been referred to. It would take too much space to retail the whole story of the changes these have undergone during recent reigns, an unhappy story of progressive deterioration as methods of photo-engraving have enabled more realistic effects to be obtained on stamps, and as sculptural whimsicalities on coins have superseded the true die-stamping conventions.

The forms of these ornaments belong, we must not forget, to the past, although they have, on occasions like the Coronation, legitimate uses today. The problem posed by this issue is how can we evolve in our own time a functional and decorative design idiom that we can regard with pride as the contemporary equivalent of the antique idiom we enjoy reviving on ceremonial occasions. The Englishman is notoriously attached to his traditions, but too often that is taken to mean that his preferences are firmly embedded in some period of the past. What he values, in fact, is the sense of *continuity* that tradition inspires, which is a very different thing from the uniformity of style that is often wished upon him, especially by those with official authority, in the name of tradition.

Our traditional ceremonies and their costumes and embellishments, however antique they may seen, are not in fact fixed; they have been evolved by a continuous process of accretion and adaptation which never stops. It cannot afford to stop, or their significance and vitality would stop too. The treasure-chest of motives, ideas and symbols which these traditions represent needs constant replenishment. Are we building up a new fund of tradition for our own posterity, in its turn, to enjoy and to draw upon when the occasion demands? Cabinet Ministers occupy rooms that they have inherited, though not quite unchanged, from a couple of hundred years ago. If that process is to continue, what pleasure will they be able to take in 2153 in the contributions to this continuing tradition that we are storing up for them today?

We are not unconscious of our shortcomings or lacking in attempts to remedy them, but our efforts do not bear fruit in the right places. We frankly criticize the low level of much design that is perpetrated in the name of the Crown, but it must not be inferred that attempts to improve design are not being made, equally in the name of the Crown. Indeed the last ten years have seen a concentration of official efforts to improve design on a scale not seen in this country since Prince Albert, consort of another young Queen, interested himself personally in the subject just over a hundred years ago. Since the war we have seen the setting up of the Council of Industrial Design the inauguration of a new honour, Royal Designer for Industry, awarded to outstanding designers, and the complete reorganization, with the object of training designers in the needs of modern industry, of the Royal College of Art; but a few years older is the Royal Fine Art Commission, whose purpose is to keep watch from a high level on the standard of design achieved in public places.

All, by and large, have the same objective, and it is significant that the last three bear the prefix Royal, substantiating the thesis with which these paragraphs began that for all the intervention of cumbersome bureaucratic machinery, the fountain-head of official design remains the Crown itself. They also prove the Crown's interest in promoting good design, an interest which, in spite of the failures and disappointments recorded here, is not absent from official circles. It is not, in fact, the will that is lacking but the way: the means of canalizing into the channels that need it most, the refreshing flow of skill and enthusiasm that contemporary designers undoubtedly possess. This is the process which the new era that will begin with the Coronation of Elizabeth II could most appropriately inaugurate.

Le phénomène contemporain des grandes villes dont le centre se déprécie tandis que la densité de la population diminue en s'éparpillant à la périphérie, ne serait qu'un moindre mal si justement ce même centre n'était appelé à faire les frais de l'exode. Toronto depuis des années déjà se débattait dans ce dilemme. Le gouvernement provincial de l'Ontario avec courage et sagesse vient d'accomplir ce que Commission sur Commission n'avait pu réussir. Le Dr. Rose assistant-professeur, Faculté des Sciences sociales de l'Université de Toronto fut de toujours dans la mélée et c'est avec autorité qu'il nous explique la nouvelle loi. (Il est intéressant d'apprendre qu'une commission d'étude siège présentement à Montréal sur les mêmes problèmes. N. de la R.)

THE MUNICIPALITY OF METROPOLITAN TORONTO

by Albert Rose*

THE SEQUENCE AND THE TIMING

THREE years ago the Toronto City Council applied to the Ontario Municipal Board for amalgamation of the city and its twelve suburban municipalities. On January 20th, 1953, the Municipal Board issued its long and eagerly awaited recommendations. To the delight of many citizens in the City and suburbs and apparently to the chagrin and consternation of all members of Toronto City Council except the Mayor, the Municipal Board went far beyond a mere dismissal of the City's application; it published a 25,000-word, 91-page printed and bound Report entitled "Decisions and Recommendations of the Board".

For at least eighteen months before its appearance, this Report seems to have borne the title "The Cumming Report". In their statement Mr. Lorne R. Cumming, the Chairman of the Board, and his vice-Chairman, Mr. W. J. Moore, presented a blueprint for a federation of the thirteen municipalities to be governed, like any federal state, by a central government and a number of local governments. Reaction to these proposals, as has been suggested, was somewhat violent within the City Council which had patiently backed "amalgamation" as the most satisfactory form of metropolitan government for the Toronto area. Within a few days Council voted 19-1 to send a submission to the Premier of Ontario opposing Provincial implementation of the Report, and began to publish advertisements in the three daily newspapers comparing "federation" unfavourably with "amalgamation".

The Premier of Ontario made his views known when, on February 25th, 1953, he personally introduced to the Legislature, Bill 80, "An Act to Provide for the Federation of the Municipalities in the Toronto Metropolitan Area for Certain Financial and Other Purposes". Bill 80 provides for the incorporation of a new municipality on April 15, 1953, to be known as "The Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto". By coincidence, the new Act required as many pages as the Cumming Report, 91 pages broken into 227 Sections. It is by all odds the most substantial piece of legislation passed in Ontario in many years and may ultimately prove, as the Premier suggested, to be the most significant contribution to municipal government in Canada since the Baldwin Act of 1849.

There can be little doubt that many months of effort were devoted to the preparation of the new legislation and that the timing and close relationship with the Cumming Report were no mere coincidence. In only two respects does Bill 80 differ from the Report of the Municipal Board, namely, in the form of representation to the Metropolitan Council, and in the handling of matters of education throughout the area.

Thus has ended the "period of reports". In explaining the action of the Municipal Board in presenting recommendations, Mr. Cumming observed: (page 42).

"It (the Board) has been impressed by the fact that the question of a suitable form of local government for the Toronto metropolitan area has been the subject of a number of official and unofficial investigations and reports for more than twenty-five years, and that although there has been a fairly wide recognition of the need, no constructive action has been taken. It is well known that the difficult problem of metropolitan government has been given intensive study in other jurisdictions and that in many large metropolitan areas various methods of securing better co-ordination in the provision of municipal services have been attempted. For the reasons which have been stated the board has not had the advantage of hearing any exposition or discussion of the types of metropolitan organization which have been adopted in other places and it has been unable to undertake any independent study or research in the limited time available . . ."

"While fully recognizing these limitations, the board feels that under the special circumstances it must assume the responsibility of presenting its own proposals for the organization of a suitable form of metropolitan government in the Toronto area . . ."

Although the Board was unable to undertake any independent study or research on its own it was presented

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The core of Metropolitan Toronto *NFB Photo*

with the evidence collected and the conclusions drawn in a number of major research undertakings. In fact Mr. Cumming pays tribute to the contributions made by the reports prepared by Messrs. Gore and Storrie on water supply,[1] by Mr. Norman D. Wilson on metropolitan transportation,[2] and by the Committee on Metropolitan Problems of the Civic Advisory Council under the chairmanship of Mr. P. Alan Deacon.[3]

In some respects the submission of these reports, in evidence before the Board, made independent research unnecessary. The first two projects were initiated by the Toronto and York Planning Board and the Toronto Transportation Commission, respectively. The Civic Advisory Council was commissioned by the thirteen municipalities in June 1948, to study the problems of the metropolitan area and to propose solutions.

It submitted three reports. One quarter of the "First Report" issued in November 1949, was devoted to an exposition of "alternative political forms" including, among others, a system of administrative commissions, the borough system, amalgamation, and a "Metropolitan County" to include the City of Toronto. In its "Final Report" issued in April 1951, the Council proposed two alternatives for consideration by all citizens in the metropolitan area, namely, a proposal for a Metropolitan County, and a proposal for Amalgamation plus a Regional Authority. The striking likeness of both the Cumming Report and of Bill 80 to this first proposal by the Civic Advisory Council has received insufficient attention.

THE FORM OF METROPOLITAN GOVERNMENT

Early in its deliberations one major consensus of the Committee on Metropolitan Problems was the require-

[1] Toronto and York Planning Board, *Report on Water Supply and Sewage Disposal for the City of Toronto and Related Areas*, prepared by Messrs. Gore and Storrie, Consulting Engineers, Toronto, September 1949.

[2] Toronto and York Planning Board, *A Transportation Plan for Metropolitan Toronto and the Suburban Area Adjacent*, prepared by Mr. Norman D. Wilson, Consulting Engineer, Toronto, April 1948.

[3] Civic Advisory Council of Toronto, Committee on Metropoliton Problems, *First Report, Section One*, Toronto, November 1949; *First Report, Section Two*, Toronto, April 1950; *Final Report*, Toronto, April 1951.

ment for an overall senior level of government for the metropolitan area, later described as a Metropolitan County Council or a Regional Authority. In the Report of the Municipal Board and in Bill 80, this appears as "The Metropolitan Council". The likeness does not extend, however, to the area to be governed or to the method of representation.

Mr. Cumming was of the opinion that the size of the Metropolitan Council should be kept to a minimum. His report proposes, therefore, a Council of nine members, four to be appointed by the City, four to be appointed by the suburban municipalities, with the chairman to be appointed by the Province. The hope was expressed that the members would be elected directly, after a transitional period of a year or two.

The considerable criticism which greeted these suggestions may have influenced the provincial authorities to some extent, for Bill 80 represents a most strategic political compromise on the matter of representation. The Metropolitan Council is to be composed of 25 members, twelve to represent the city, twelve (one for each suburb) to represent the suburban municipalities, with the Chairman to be appointed by the Province for the first two years. Thereafter, the Chairman will be elected by the Council from within or without the group.

The City's representatives were defined as the mayor, the two (of four) controllers polling the highest vote, and one (of two) aldermen from each City ward, seniority to be determined by the vote. Councillors are to receive $1800 per annum. The original opposition of city councillors seems to have been mollified by these proposals.

The method of representation is, of course, productive of a number of fantastic anomalies. As a political manoeuvre, however, it could scarcely have been more effective. It allows neither the City nor the suburban municipalities, which are now collectively to be known as "the area municipalities", to dominate in the difficult period of transition. It provides representation for every municipality in the federation and ensures that most of the proponents and opponents of metropolitan government shall sit together on the Metropolitan Council for the time being.

While these may be advantages during the first period, strong exception must be taken to an indirect form of election to the senior government in the metropolitan area. One major argument put forward against amalgamation has been the contention that an enlarged City Council could not adequately govern a vast metropolitan area with diverse local problems. Under the new arrangement the elected heads of all municipalities, together with certain City controllers and aldermen, are being asked to serve both the area municipalities and the metropolitan area. It is inconceivable that they can provide adequate service in both posts.

Both the Civic Advisory Council's "Final Report" and the Cumming Report make a case for the direct election of members to the Metropolitan Council. Mr. Cumming believes that ". . . the question whether the election of members should be an election at large or by wards or metropolitan electoral divisions is one which would seem to require further study and consideration before a final decision is made." (page 84). It is to be hoped that such decisions, as a basis for direct election, will be made within the two-year transition period.

Apart from any other objections to an indirect form of representation the vital principle of representation by population has been ignored. One member of the Metropolitan Council, for example, will represent Long Branch, population 9,000, along with one member for York Township and one member for North York Township, each with populations of 100,000. This situation may be contrasted with that of the smallest Toronto ward, Ward 3, with a population of perhaps 40,000, which will be represented fully by one alderman and partly by two controllers and the mayor of the City.

A strong case can be made for the creation of entirely new metropolitan electoral divisions, either wholly urban or wholly rural, to represent roughly equal numbers of urban residents on one hand, or rural residents on the other. These constituencies can later be divided as population increases.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR MUNICIPAL SERVICES

No federal state has solved satisfactorily the major problem of the allocation of powers to the respective levels of government. The Committee on Metropolitan Problems of the Civic Advisory Council devoted most of its effort in 1950-51 to a consideration of the metropolitan and local aspects of the provision of specific municipal services. As well, more than one-third of the Cumming Report is concerned with this question of the distribution of powers and the Board's comments concerning specific proposals. As has been indicated, the Government differed with Mr. Cumming only in respect to the provision of educational facilities.

The new legislation provides that the Metropolitan Council shall be responsible for the making of local assessments in the area on a uniform basis, for the production and wholesale distribution of water to the area municipalities, for the establishment of a comprehensive sewage and drainage system, and for arterial roads, public welfare, housing, community planning, metropolitan parks and the administration of justice. Public transportation in the metropolitan area becomes the responsibility of a new Toronto Transit Commission which is the old

Toronto Transportation Commission dissolved and reconstituted. The Commissioners will be the present three and two additional appointees of the Metropolitan Council.

Perhaps the most unusual features of the Report of the Municipal Board were the proposals concerning the provision of educational facilities. The Report states:

"The evidence presented to the board made it very clear that the solution of this extremely important and difficult problem is vital to the success of any reform of municipal institutions in the metropolitan area. Unless some means can be found to provide the school accommodation needed by the rapidly expanding population and to pay the ever increasing costs of operation of the present schools and the badly needed new facilities, the problem of housing the inhabitants of the metropolitan area cannot be solved." (page 53).

To solve these problems Mr. Cumming proposed that the Metropolitan Council should assume overall responsibility for the determination and provision of an adequate standard of accommodation, operation and maintenance of educational facilities throughout the area. Local municipalities could provide more than this basic standard at their own expense.

Bill 80, on the other hand, provides for the establishment of a Metropolitan School Board, on a basis similar to the establishment of the Metropolitan Council, composed of members of public and secondary school boards, with the usual separate school representation for secondary school purposes. In the "Explanatory Notes" to the Bill it is stated:

"The Metropolitan School Board is given authority to determine and pay maintenance assistance payments toward the cost of educating public, elementary, academic secondary and vocational secondary school pupils. These payments will be provided from general legislative grants and from uniform levies against all the area municipalities. The amount of the maintenance assistance payment in respect of each class of pupil for the years 1954 and 1955 is fixed by the Bill and thereafter will be determined by the Metropolitan School Board."

The members of the Board will elect their own Chairman from within or without their group, but it is hardly likely that any outside person will be named. No provision is made for payment although modest expense allowances have been granted.

The amount of the capital cost of new school accommodation which is eligible for legislative grants is required to be raised by metropolitan taxation. Thus, in effect, the powers and responsibilities which Mr. Cumming proposed to hand to the Metropolitan Council have been given to a Metropolitan School Board. This is a simple extension of the traditional role of the local Board of Education. Unfortunately, the same objections to the method of representation and the requirement for dual service, this time without remuneration, must be made.

LOCAL RESPONSIBILITY FOR MUNICIPAL SERVICES

When the Cumming Report was issued there was considerable press and other criticism of the Board's failure to include police and fire protection among the responsibilities of the Metropolitan Council. The Civic Advisory Council and other groups had made a good case for the integration of police forces and fire fighting services throughout the metropolitan area. The writer assumes that among Mr. Cumming's motives was the desire to leave some worthwhile activities for the councils of the area municipalities. It has since been argued that police and fire protection services were far less a serious problem than, say, water supply and sewage disposal. While this may be true in some respects, it is difficult to believe that the area municipalities can provide an adequate and uniform standard of service.

In addition to police and fire protection, the local municipalities are left with responsibility for public health, garbage collection and incineration, retail distribution of water and electric power, minor licensing and the operation of the public schools. During the past three years the opponents of amalgamation have argued that the multiplicity of local governments, boards and commissions, ensures a widespread interest in local affairs. Under the new circumstances, with municipal functions of metropolitan significance, or the metropolitan aspects thereof, assigned to the senior government, this argument will be put to a severe test. It may be doubted that the responsibilities assigned to the area municipalities will prove of sufficient importance to maintain local interest in retaining the thirteen municipal governments for many more years.

HOUSING AND REDEVELOPMENT

The Premier of Ontario, in introducing Bill 80 to the Ontario Legislature, and in an explanatory press conference, placed great emphasis upon the significance of the federation of the metropolitan area in meeting housing need. One press report read:

Ability to take full advantage of provincial and Dominion housing legislation will be the greatest advantage of unification of services in the Toronto area, Premier Leslie Frost said today.

He made his prediction after introducing into the Ontario Legislature the sweeping, 15-part Metropolitan Area bill.

In a 3,500-word address, the Premier termed housing needs the 'greatest motivating reason' for provincial action in the Toronto area problem. 'Solution of the housing problem is dependent upon solution of other matters—arterial roads, credit, area responsibility for education, water, sewers and co-operation in municipal government.'

In spite of numerous Government assistance plans, the Toronto area has made less progress in housing than any other area, he claimed.

Specifically, the bill would confer on the Metropolitan Council it sets up all the powers conferred on a municipality under the Housing Development Act and the Planning Act. It would not, however, interfere or limit the powers of any of the member municipalities in housing or redevelopment projects.

At a press conference, also attended by members of his Cabinet who will guide sections of the lengthy bill through second and third readings, the Premier elaborated on the housing need.

'Desperately as we have tried there isn't a thing to show but Regent Park,' he said.

He could understand why it had been impossible to provide low cost housing in areas such as Etobicoke. Provision of serviced land should be a charge on the area as a whole not a specific municipality. Under a Metropolitan Council with its 'enormous assessment' this will now be possible, he said."

If the reader will assume that this was an accurate report of the Premier's statements he would do well, next, to examine Parts XI and XII of Bill 80, dealing respectively with "Housing and Redevelopment" and "Planning". These read as follows:

PART XI

Housing and Redevelopment

176.—(1) The Metropolitan Corporation and the Metropolitan Council shall have all the powers conferred on the corporation or Council of a municipality under *The Housing Development Act*, and under *The Planning Act* or any other Act with respect to housing or building development, housing projects, temporary housing accommodation and redevelopment areas and with respect to any other matter concerned with the provision or improvement of housing accommodation.

(2) Nothing in subsection 1 shall be deemed to limit or interfere with the powers of the area municipalities with respect to the matters mentioned in subsection 1.

177.—Without limiting its power under subsection 1 of section 176, the Metropolitan Corporation,

(a) shall be deemed to be a governmental authority within the meaning of sections 22 and 23 of *The Planning Act;* and

(b) may enter into agreements with any area municipality for sharing or contributing to the costs incurred by the area municipality in exercising any of its powers with respect to the matters mentioned in subsection 1 of section 176.

178.—This Part comes into force on the 1st day of January, 1954.

PART XII

Planning

179.—(1) The planning area constituted under *The Planning Act* and consisting of the whole of the County of York is continued.

(2) The Toronto and York Planning Board constituted under *The Planning Act* for the said planning area is continued.

(3) The Metropolitan Corporation shall be the designated municipality within the meaning of *The Planning Act* for the purposes of the said planning area.

(4) The Minister of Planning and Development shall vary the constitution of the planning board of any planning area which includes the Metropolitan Area so as to provide for membership on the board of two persons recommended by The Metropolitan School Board and approved by the said Minister.

180.—The Metropolitan Corporation shall be deemed to be a municipality for the purposes of sections 1 to 14, 16, 18 to 20, 28 and 29 of *The Planning Act.*

181.—The scope and general purpose of the official plan for the planning area shall continue to include,

(a) land uses and consideration generally of industrial, agricultural, residential and commercial areas;

(b) ways of communication;

(c) sanitation;

(d) green belts and park areas;

(e) public transportation

and such other matters as the Minister of Planning and Development may from time to time define under *The Planning Act.*

182.—All the provisions of *The Planning Act* shall, notwithstanding anything in this Part, continue to apply.

183.—This Part comes into force on the day this Act receives Royal Assent.

It should be emphasized that Bill 80 is intended to provide a framework of local government and is not a "Housing Act". By itself it cannot solve the housing problem. The relevant housing legislation continues to be the Ontario Housing Development Act and the National Housing Act. Together this legislation provides for a federal-provincial partnership with the Provincial Government passing on a proportion of its 25% responsibility to the municipality in which the housing may be located. In Ontario at the present time the municipal responsibility is 7½% in the case of "full recovery" projects. In subsidized rental projects the Provincial Government bears the full 25% on the condition that the municipality reduces taxes on the project in proportion to the subsidy.

It has become evident that these arrangements would not work satisfactorily in a metropolitan area divided into thirteen separated autonomous municipalities. The relevant housing legislation will now be applied within an entirely new framework of metropolitan government. There will occur, as well, a fundamental change in the whole base of taxation and administration, and these changes may permit a much fuller use of Sections 12 and 35 of the National Housing Act.

In the former suburban municipalities the Metropolitan Council will find plenty of vacant raw land if it chooses to initiate housing projects under Section 35 of the National Housing Act. Whether this land will prove suitable for such projects and whether there will be a strong disposition to initiate, is a real question. As well, it must be emphasized that the Metropolitan Council will face strong demands for the installation of municipal services in the vast unserviced areas built up during the past decade.

This potential impasse is intended to be broken through one of the five Bills which accompanied the new Act of federation. Specifically, Bill 81, "An Act to Provide for the Payment of Unconditional Grants to Municipalities", introduces a new system of per capita grants to municipalities, beginning in 1954. Payments will be made ranging from $1.50 per capita in the least populated municipalities to $4.00 per capita "in the case of metropolitan municipalities and cities over 750,000". Presumably this means an outright grant of about $5 millions per annum to the federated metropolitan area. It is argued that this will reduce taxes in 1954 and thereafter.

The new system of minimum per-pupil educational grants by the Metropolitan School Board to the area municipalities raises some further hope that housing will not continue to be restricted by virtue of heavy educational costs. These grants were listed in the Bill as $150.00 per annum for public school pupils, $250.00 for academic secondary school pupils and $300.00 for vocational secondary school pupils. It is too early to know whether these amounts are sufficient to overcome the serious opposition of the municipalities to housing development, whether public or private at a time when expenditures for education amount to more than 50% of total municipal expenditures in several localities.

Nevertheless it would be both unwise and unkind to condemn these new arrangements without a fair trial, say three to five years. If it is true that present arrangements have failed to meet housing need the Metropolitan Council need not exert great initiative to improve upon the present.

PLANNING

Perhaps more serious questions may be raised concerning the arrangements for "Planning". The first major problem relates to the "planning area". Part XII appears to offer no realistic approach to planning on a regional basis. In its "First Report" the Civic Advisory Council drew attention to the fact that the metropolitan area of Toronto went far beyond the boundaries of the thirteen municipalities now federated in the Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto. Urban growth has continued to develop in York County to the north of the metropolis, in Ontario County to the east, and, particularly, in Peel County to the west. All the familiar problems of the chaotic, unplanned suburban fringe have multiplied like gigantic amoebae so that, to some extent, federation is already too late to avert the need for re-planning.

Under the circumstances the continuation of the County of York as the planning area, the continuation of the Toronto and York Planning Board as the planning board, and the limited definition of the metropolitan area itself, constitute stark ostrichism. Surely the first essential of regional planning is an adequate definition of the region and the assurance that the planning area shall in fact embrace the entire region. The metropolitan area of Toronto constitutes a region for planning, but this region extends beyond the boundaries of York County to the west, and does not include the northern portion of York County which falls into a distinct "Lake Simcoe Planning Area" as the Community Planning Association so aptly demonstrated in 1950.[1]

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

There can be no question that the new legislation, in general, is a most realistic and imaginative attempt to solve the manifold problems of the second most populous metropolitan area in Canada. The success or failure of this experiment will mean a great deal to other Canadian urban areas.

It is noteworthy that frequent references have been made in the Debates to the effect that a substantial number of amendments may be necessary within the next two or three years. In other words the government of Ontario appears to view the Act as a dynamic rather than static instrument. This is particularly important when one considers that the Metropolitan Council will be hard put to make any really significant contribution to the solutions of major problems within the first five years.

Bill 80 was written in the spirit of Canadian political and constitutional development. It is probably far more acceptable to the great majority of the residents in the Toronto metropolitan area than an outright amalgamation would have been. There can be no doubt that no worthwhile approach to the solution of "the metropolitan problem" would have eventuated without the direct and firm intervention of the Provincial Government.

It is unfortunate that the arguments of the Ontario Division of the C.P.A.C. over the past few years concerning the need for an adequate approach to regional planning have made only slight impression. There are indications however, that a more realistic approach to community planning will take form as the Planning Authority attempts to meet the enormous difficulties with which it will be faced, with inadequate legislative and administrative tools. In view of the statements of the Premier concerning the significance of the new legislation for Housing it may be hoped that equally firm action will be taken if the arrangements for "Housing and Redevelopment" and for "Planning" prove in fact to be insufficient to meet the need.

[1] It is gratifying to note that, after this article was prepared a significant amendment to Part XII of Bill 80 was approved on March 30, 1953. The press reports indicate that a new planning body to be known as the Metropolitan Toronto Planning Board will replace the Toronto and York Planning Board. The new Planning Board will have supreme planning authority in the metropolitan area and may extend its jurisdiction beyond the boundaries of the thirteen municipalities to take in fringe areas. (The Globe and Mail, Toronto, March 31, 1953.)

Sweden is a country well advanced in the social sciences, in the moulding of its environment in a rough landscape which it has succeeded in humanizing. Mr. Cimon, formerly assistant to Mr. Alan H. Armstrong, is back from three years of study in Sweden and in Paris. The excerpts published in these pages concern housing in Sweden; they form part of a book to be published shortly in French under the title "l'Urbanisme, réalité en Suède, i.e. "Planning, a reality in Sweden".

L'HABITATION EN SUÈDE

par Jean Cimon*

BIEN qu'elle ne possède qu'une grande ville et que son territoire soit peu peuplé la Suède est un des pays les plus industrialisés du monde. Sur une population de 7 millions d'habitants, 4.5 millions habitent des aires de peuplement dense (densely populated areas), mais 3 villes seulement dépassent les 100,000 habitants; 60 villes comptent de 10,000 à 100,000 habitants et 1,200 villes ont moins de 10,000 habitants. C'est dire que la Suède est constituée par un grand nombre de petites communes disséminées sur tout le territoire national.

L'urbanisme allemand d'avant la dernière guerre mondiale a exercé une influence certaine sur la Suède, mais ce sont surtout les théoriciens anglo-saxons qui ont marqué profondément les urbanistes suédois et l'on remarque dans la législation suédoise l'influence des célèbre rapports Uthwatt, Scott et Barlow, sans parler des idées du sociologue américain Lewis Mumford.

Les acquisitions considérables de terrains faites par Stockholm et par plusieurs autres villes suédoises sont à l'origine d'une politique progressive de construction d'habitations et d'urbanisme, ces deux choses étant désormais inséparables en Suède.

Trois facteurs principaux forment le fond de scène de l'urbanisme suédois contemporain:

A—Une migration importante des populations rurales vers les centres urbains du commerce et de l'industrie;

B—Une augmentation considérable aux taux de natalité, depuis une dizaine d'années, particulièrement dans les aires urbaines;

C—Des réformes sociales importantes, comme l'exécution d'une politique de l'habitation: a)—en 1942, la Société de prêts à la construction fixe le standard suivant pour une famille de 3 enfants: 3 chambres, cuisine et une superficie minimum de plancher habitable de 60 mètres carrés; b)—hausse générale des salaires; c)—contrôle des loyers; d)—nombreux prêts (à intérêt peu élevé) de l'État à la construction d'habitations; e)—la technique des méthodes de production est standardisée et rationalisée.

Le salaire moyen d'un ouvrier suédois de l'industrie était Kr. 4,420: ($885 environ) en 1939 et de Kr. 6,740: ($1,350 environ) en 1947, soit une augmentation de 52%. Le loyer (chauffage compris) d'un appartement de 2 chambres et cuisine (55m²) était de Kr. 1,420: ($284 environ) en 1939 et de Kr. 1,680: ($335 environ) en 1947, soit une augmentation de 18%. (1) C'est dire que le loyer ("rentpercent") a diminué de 20% durant cette période. En d'autres termes, l'ouvrier suédois déboursait —pour se loger en 1939—le tiers de son salaire, alors qu'il n'en déboursait que le quart en 1947.

Quant au coût de la construction, il a augmenté de près de 60% entre 1939 et 1949. Notons un écart considérable entre l'augmentation du coût des matériaux et celle des gages payés aux ouvriers du bâtiment: 80% environ pour les matériaux contre 30% environ pour les gages.

L'équipement des appartements marque un progrès constant. En 1939, 50% des appartements jouissaient du chauffage central contre 72% environ en 1949; en 1939 également, 23% des appartements possédaient une baignoire contre 50% environ en 1949.

En 1949, on calculait qu'il y avait en Suède un déficit approximatif de 50,0000 appartements; ce calcul tenait compte du vieillissement progressif des immeubles et de l'augmentation annuelle des nouveaux ménages. Il semble que ce déficit soit à peu près le même en 1952. Le nombre de maisons unifamiliales (à Stockholm) construites ou

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Ce texte inédit est extrait d'un livre qui paraîtra prochainement sous le titre de "L'*Urbanisme, réalité en Suède.*"

Une maison—lamelle sur Arstavägen, Stockholm *cliché Jean Cimon*

reconstruites était de 5,300 en 1939 et de 7,160 en 1948. Quant aux maisons jumelées (2 familles), on en a construit 2,280 en 1939 et 1,520 en 1948. La construction des immeubles à appartements multiples est demeurée constante, soit une production annuelle d'environ 2,300 immeubles de 1939 à 1948. (2)

TYPES D'HABITATIONS

Maisons à logements multiples.

A—"*Maisons larges*" (tjockhus; "deep houses"):

Les "maisons larges" ainsi dénommées par les Suédois à cause de leur largeur ou profondeur importante, contiennent ordinairement 6 ou 8 appartements par étage. La largeur de l'immeuble (d'une façade à l'autre) est de 45 à 48 pieds. (3) Les appartements sont adossés l'un à l'autre ("back to back flats") et certains d'entre eux n'ont de fenêtres que sur un seul côté de l'immeuble; car seuls les appartements placés aux coins de l'immeuble ("corner flats") jouissent de 2 orientations; cependant, par un procédé ingénieux de construction, on parvient à donner aux 2 ou 4 appartements situés au centre de l'immeuble une deuxième orientation, mais à une seule pièce de ces appartements.

B—"*Maisons étroites*" (smalhus; "shallow-houses"):

La largeur de l'immeuble n'est que de 23 à 30 pieds; c'est pourquoi les Suédois qualifient d'"étroites" ces maisons. Chaque appartement traverse la maison d'une façade à l'autre et l'escalier ne dessert que deux appartements par étage. On voit généralement 3 ou 4 de ces maisons d'une hauteur de 3 étages, (le rez-de-chaussée n'est jamais mentionné dans le présent article, car nous le comptons pour un étage) accolées et qui forment ainsi une bande longue et étroite que les Suédois nomment "*maisons-lamelles* (*lamellhus*).

Ce type d'immeuble est économique et il permet une aération et une insolation excellentes de chaque appartement. Les *maisons-lamelles* sont presqu'idéales, mais à une condition essentielle; l'implantation de l'immeuble doit 1)—prévoir entre chaque maison-lamelle une distance (un espace libre) au moins égale à deux fois la hauteur de

la maison; 2)—implanter la maison-lamelle non en fonction d'une rue (i.e. l'alignement traditionnel en bordure de la rue; c'est la rue qui doit servir la maison, et non l'inverse!) mais en fonction de l'insolation désirée et des vues intéressantes dont on peut tirer parti. L'orientation est-ouest, par exemple, est excellente dans des pays nordiques comme la Suède et le Canada où l'insolation hivernale est de courte durée; ainsi, dans le cas d'une maison-lamelle orientée est-ouest, la moitié des pièces de chaque appartement jouit d'une insolation directe le matin et l'autre moitié jouit également d'une insolation directe en fin d'après-midi; 3)—s'harmoniser avec la topographie du terrain et du paysage environnant.

Dans l'implantation de leurs *maisons-lamelles*, on peut dire que les constructeurs suédois ont observé ces trois conditions essentielles dans la majorité des cas. Le sol à Stockholm est rocheux et accidenté et les Suédois savent en tirer parti pour créer de la beauté. Le nouveau Stockholm—situé à la périphérie immédiate des quartiers centraux de Norrmalm, Södermalm et Kungsholmen—compte à peine 3 ou 4 types d'immeubles collectifs standardisés et malgré cette uniformité peut-être poussée trop loin, les urbanistes ont réussi le plus souvent à éviter la monotonie et la banalité dans ces nouveaux quartiers immergés volontairement dans les forêts de conifères qui entourent le centre de la ville. C'est que la nature—arbres et rochers mis en valeur, perspective d'une nappe d'eau ou d'un rideau forestier—y est l'élément architectural dominant. Cette sensation de repos, de fraîcheur et d'harmonie qu'on ressent dans la plupart des quartiers d'habitation du nouveau Stockholm, s'explique par une implantation "instinctive" des bâtiments, implantation qui s'harmonise d'instinct avec le paysage environnant et avec la topographie immédiate du terrain. D'où vient cette qualité majeure de l'urbanisme suédois? Pour moi, c'est l'extériorisation d'un amour profond et raisonné de la nature, amour partagé non seulement chez les urbanistes, mais chez le peuple suédois tout entier.

Carrefour à trois niveaux de Slussen, Stockholm
cliché Jean Cimon

On dispose aussi 3 *maisons-étroites* (formant la lettre "Y") autour d'un escalier central et on nomme cette combinaison *maison-étoile*. L'angle entre chaque bras de l'immeuble étant de 120° environ, l'intimité de chaque appartement est à peu près complète. Il est à noter aussi que chaque bras ou aile de la *maison-étoile* ne contient qu'un seul appartement. Comme sa soeur la *maison-lamelle*, la *maison-étoile* n'a que 3 étages. Mais chaque appartement jouit de 3 orientations (au lieu de 2 pour la *maison-lamelle*) quand la maison-étoile est isolée. Une combinaison de plusieurs *maisons-étoiles* accolées—exemple de Gröndal à Stockholm—forme des jardins intérieurs mi-clos qui reposent de la monotonie des *maisons-lamelles*, quand ces dernières sont groupées en trop grand nombre sur un terrain plat.

C—"*Maisons-tours*" (punkthus; "point-houses"):

La *maison-tour* est un immeuble haut (6 ou 8 étages), à peu près carré et limité à 4 appartements ("corner flats") par étage. L'escalier (situé à peu près au centre du carré) ne reçoit pas la lumière du jour comme c'est aussi le cas pour la maison-large. La maison tour possède jusqu'à un certain point les avantages économiques de la *maison-large* (plusieurs appartements par étage, rentabilité d'un ascenseur, etc.) et les avantages qualitatifs de la *maison-lamelle*, i.e. chaque appartement possède deux façades suffisamment longues pour permettre une ventilation quasi-directe et une insolation satisfaisante de toutes les pièces, sauf la salle de bain qui est généralement obscure. Quand j'habitais une *maison-tour* à Stockholm, je me suis demandé une fois: "Pourquoi ne construirait-on pas une *maison-étoile* isolée de 8 étages à la place d'une *maison-tour* de même hauteur?"—La silhouette de cette *maison-étoile* élevée serait moins massive et plus élégante que celle de la *maison-tour* et chaque appartement jouirait de 3 orientations au lieu de 2. Cette *maison-étoile* de 8

étages pourrait être construite sur pilotis, ce qui permettrait une plus grande liberté d'implantation, chaque maison pouvant être atteinte directement par une voie de desserte en forme de cul-de-sac: les véhicules tourneraient sous le premier étage et déposeraient leurs passagers à la porte même du hall d'entrée!

D—"*Maison-collectives*" (Kollektivhus; "collective houses"):

La maison collective est une sorte d'hôtel de résidence pour célibataires et pour familles ayant peu ou pas d'enfants. Ce qui caractérise la maison collective, c'est qu'elle abrite sous un même toit de nombreux appartements (de 100 à 200) et de nombreux services tels que magasins, restaurant, garderie d'enfants, domestiques, bains finnois, buanderie collective, salles de jeux, etc.—Les locataires doivent généralement s'engager à prendre la plupart de leurs repas au restaurant de la maison collective ou à acheter les mets préparés dans la cuisine de ce restaurant pour consommation dans les appartements. Les appartements sont petits et la plupart ne contiennent qu'une pièce avec salle de bain et cuisinette.

MAISONS INDIVIDUELLES

A—*Maison unifamiliale isolée*:

Elle est très rare à Stockholm, comme dans les autres capitales européennes; elle ne se trouve généralement qu'à la périphérie de la ville, et encore là y est-elle en minorité.

B—*Maisons individuelles entre mitoyens* (radhus; "terrace houses"):

Ce sont des maisons familiales accolées pour former une bande continue, comme c'est le cas de la *maison-lamelle*. Ces maisons familiales ont ordinairement 2 étages ou bien un rez-de-chaussée et un demi-étage sous le toit. Du point de vue économique, la maison entre mitoyens est plus avantageuse que la maison complètement isolée et elle offre à peu près les mêmes qualités: proximité du sol et jardin privé. Il est vrai que les maisons "continues"—sauf celles situées aux extrémités de la bande—n'ont que deux orientations, mais l'insolation des pièces et l'intimité du foyer y sont comparables à celles des maisons unifamiliales isolées construites sur les lots de 40 ou 50 pieds par 100 pieds, ce qui est la superficie moyenne des lots des particuliers dans les quartiers bourgeois des villes canadiennes. Ces maisons unifamiliales disposées en bandes continues (de 4 à 6 maisons accolées), créent une architecture splendide comme le démontre la "New Town" de Harlow en Grande-Bretagne, dont la construction se poursuit à une trentaine de milles de Londres.

Comparée à la maison unifamiliale isolée, la maison unifamiliale entre mitoyens (ou maison "continue") offre une économie de terrain et de construction. Ces maisons peuvent être louées et des services collectifs tels qu'une garderie et une chaufferie centrale pour une ou plusieurs

Une maison-large sur l'île de Reimersholme, Stockholm
cliché Jean Cimon

bandes de maisons "continues" peuvent être installées d'une façon économique. L'exemple de *Frilufstaden* à Malmö (Suède) est éloquent et le plan général d'aménagement de la capitale suédoise prévoit la construction d'un grand nombre de maisons individuelles "continues" (4).

Les Suédois, dont l'esprit critique est aussi sévère que bien documenté, ne prisent pas tous la standardisation et l'uniformité de l'habitat suédois des vingt dernières années. Certains critiques reprochent aux "maisons-lamelles" leur manque de beauté et de confort, aux "maisons-tours" (7 ou 9 étages) leur hauteur antifamiliale. Et depuis que l'implantation des bâtiments en Suède a rompu définitivement avec l'alignement traditionnel en bordure des rues, on a quelquefois fait reproche aux urbanistes d'avoir oublié l'atmosphère intime et charmante qui se dégageait des jardins intérieurs formés par quatre bâtiments disposés autour d'une cour et dont on

Maisons larges en construction à Stockholm
cliché Sven Gillsäter

Maisons-lamelles à Stockholm
cliché Sven Gillsäter

trouve des exemples splendides dans les villes de la Méditerranée.

Cependant, il ne faut pas reprocher aux seuls urbanistes la rareté des types standards de bâtiments collectifs à usage d'habitation; en effet, les pouvoirs publics suédois—qui finançaient 90% des habitations construites pendant la dernière guerre—favorisent naturellement la construction des "maisons-lamelles" et des "maisons-tours" qui ont fait leurs preuves du point de vue économique. D'autre part, les groupes d'habitations en forme d'étoiles de *Gröndal* (à Stockholm) et de *Rosta* (à Orebro), démontrent le parti intéressant que l'on peut tirer d'une juxtaposition ingénieuse de ces "maison-lamelles"; on obtient ainsi des cours hexagonales mi-fermées du plus bel effet. Dans le projet du futur quartier de *Rocksta* (à Stockholm), on trouve des maisons-lamelles disposées symétriquement autour de vastes espaces verts.

Quels sont les désirs des Suédois en matière d'habitation? En 1945, une enquête faite auprès de 1,142 familles de Stockholm a donné les résultats suivants: 46% des familles interrogées aimeraient habiter une maison unifamiliale isolée; 37% préfèrent habiter un appartement dans une maison-lamelle de 3 étages et 17% un appartement situé dans un immeuble haut (de 6 à 9 étages). (4)

Maisons-tours en construction à Stockholm

cliché Sven Gillsäter

Petites maisons préfabriquées à Stockholm

cliché Sven Gillsäter

Est-il possible, économiquement, de réaliser ce désir de la majorité des familles suédoises et canadiennes? Une réponse adéquate déborderait les cadres de la présente étude. Qu'il me soit permis, toutefois, d'ouvrir une parenthèse ici.

Dans les villes de l'Amérique du Nord, on rencontre des quartiers d'habitation composés uniquement de maisons unifamiliales isolées (*detached houses*); mais, dans la majorité des cas, ces maisons—qui, en principe, ont des fenêtres sur 4 côtés—sont si proches les unes des autres, qu'elles se portent ombre mutuellement sur au moins deux de leurs côtés. Ceci veut dire que l'insolation (si importante dans les pays nordiques) de ces maisons isolées n'est pas meilleur—et souvent moins bonne—que celle des maisons-lamelles suédoises entourées d'espaces libres plantés (entretenus par la ville de Stockholm qui est propriétaire du terrain) plus vastes que les jardinets attenant aux maisons individuelles de l'Amérique du Nord. Depuis le balcon ou la fenêtre d'une maison à appartements multiples en Suède, les vues sont généralement dégagées et l'oeil ne bute pas constamment contre le mur de briques ou la corde à linge d'un immeuble voisin. Espace, verdure, calme, air pur et sensation de bien-être sont le lot quotidien des familles habitant les maisons-lamelles de la périphérie de Stockholm. Pour

que toutes les maisons unifamiliales isolées puissent jouir des mêmes avantages, il faudrait que chaque maison fût construite sur un lot d'une superficie approximative de 75 x 100 pieds, que l'architecture et l'implantation de ces maisons soient sévèrement règlementées, de façon à éviter l'écueil si fréquent de la monotonie, de la laideur et d'une mauvaise orientation. Il faudrait aussi faire preuve de goût et d'imagination dans le plan de lotissement, le tracé des voies de desserte et des allées piétonnières.

Combien de familles urbaines, en Suède ou du Canada, pourraient se payer une maison unifamiliale isolée sur un terrain de 75 x 100 pieds? Au bas d'une photographie aérienne montrant un quartier d'habitation des U.S.A. composé d'innombrables maisons familiales isolées, Le Corbusier écrivait:

"Voici la *petite* maison et son *petit* jardin: 'mon chez moi'. Il suffit de beaucoup de territoire et d'une infinité kilométrique de routes, de tramways, de bus, de métros, de canalisations de toutes sortes, de cantonniers et de policiers. Multipliez par 10,000 ou 100,000 et vous avez l'immense gaspillage des temps modernes. Et celà coûte combien? Et les heures de trajet des banlieusards font tant plaisir, on le sait!!" (5)

Si la population canadienne n'accepte pas le contrôle nécessaire du territoire urbain, le coût des services publics —sur l'île de Montréal, par exemple—deviendra catastrophique pour le budjet des contribuables, sans parler des inconvénients multiples que doivent déjà endurer les habitants de ces monstres qu'on appelle les villes-tentaculaires. On ne répètera jamais assez qu'une ville qui grandit sans plan directeur d'aménagement et sans règlementation intelligente et efficace de l'utilisation du sol, finit par se détruire elle-même.

Si l'agglomération de Stockholm ne compte que 17% environ de maisons familiales isolées, c'est que quatre raisons principales militent contre ce genre de maisons:

A—Un pourcentage élevé de maisons unifamiliales isolées supposerait une extension si considérable du domaine bâti à la périphérie de Stockholm (qui a déjà un rayon circulaire d'environ six milles depuis l'île-de-la-cité), que le problème du transport en commun deviendrait à peu près insoluble.

B—Le coût de la voirie et des services publics augmenterait sensiblement avec la multiplication des maisons unifamiliales isolées.

C—Il est difficile et coûteux de donner à un quartier périphérique très étendu (parce que composé de multiples maisons individuelles), des services sociaux, culturels, et commerciaux qui puissent neutraliser un tant soit peu l'attrait quasi- irrésistible des services plus variés du centre de la ville. Quand le centre est facilement accessible aux habitants de la périphérie, il arrive que la majorité d'entre eux passe une bonne partie de leur vie à circuler entre le quartier-dortoir et le centre de la ville, ce qui est fatiguant et coûte cher en fin de compte.

D—Plus de 30% des femmes mariées de Stockholm ont un emploi régulier et à plein temps hors du foyer. Et pour les femmes mariées âgées de moins de trente ans, on calcule que ce pourcentage atteint 50%. (4) C'est dire que ces ménages ont des besoins essentiels en fait de services domestiques, besoins qu'il est difficile de satisfaire d'une façon économique sur un territoire étendu et peu peuplé, tel qu'un quartier de maisons unifamiliales isolées.

Mais ce qui est fort decevant, c'est de retrouver les mêmes *maison-lamelles* répétées à l'infini dans les petites communes mi-rurales, mi-urbaines, où on s'attend de trouver enfin un nombre important de maisons unifamiliales, isolées et entourées d'un jardin privé. Est-ce abus de standardisation ou de contrôle gouvernemental, ou pénurie de finance, ou manque d'imagination chez les architectes?

(1) "*Sweden Builds*", par G. E. Kidder Smith, A.I.A. (The Architectural Press, London & Albert Bonnier, New York & Stockholm, 1950); ce livre de M. Kidder Smith est probablement le plus bel album jamais publié sur l'architecture suédoise actuelle.

(2) "*Plan*", Tidskrift för planering av landsbygd och tätorter. (Volume 4, No. 1-2, 1950); numéro spécial en langue anglaise, intitulé: "Swedish Town-Planning 1940-1950; reflections and examples". Ce numéro est une synthèse bien illustrée de l'urbanisme suédois actuel et on y trouve un article excellent de M. Sven Markelius, intitulé: "The Human Being First". La revue "Plan" est publiée (en suédois) par Förening for samhällsplanering (L'Association d'Urbanisme), Runda vägen 32, Bromma, Stockholm, Suède.

(3) "*Fyrtiotalets Svenska Bostad*"—*Swedish Housing of the "Forties"*, publié par l'Association nationale des Architectes suédois; tidskriften Byggmästaren, Stockholm, 1950. Ouvrage bilingue (anglais et suédois) abondamment illustré.

(4) "*Det Framtida Stockholm, Riktlinjer för Stockholms Generalplan*", (Stockholm in the Future, Principles of the Outline Plan of Stockholm); K. L. Beckmans Boktryckeri, Stockholm, 1946. Document précieux en suédois, avec un résumé de 11 pages en langue anglaise.

(5) "*L'Unité d'Habitation de Marseille*", par Le Corbusier, No. 38 (1950) de la revue "Le Point", Mulhouse; p. 6.

L'élaboration d'un plan d'ensemble, d'un règlement de zonage et de construction est une œuvre de patience qui requiert de la sagesse et de la pondération. Pendant que l'autorité locale fait la recherche nécessaire, la ville, organisme plein de vie, progresse et souvent dans la direction même qui a suscité le besoin d'un règlement de zonage. Comment faire? L'auteur, M. B. Weisman qui est en charge de son application à Edmonton nous décrit le règlement ingénieux qui permit pendant l'élaboration du travail, un certain contrôle de l'aménagement du sol.

INTERIM DEVELOPMENT

—*a guide to builders while making the official plan*

by Brahm Wiesman*

THE recent discovery of oil in the vicinity of Edmonton, as well as further opening of the Northern hinterland, have greatly accelerated the growth of the city. In 1946 the population was one hundred and thirteen thousand, today, it exceeds one hundred and eighty thousand. This spectacular growth created an awareness of the urgent need for more efficient physical planning to guide the development of the city. In 1949 John Bland and Harold Spence-Sales were commissioned by the City Council to report on the physical development of the city and the administrative organization that had been established by virtue of the provisions of the Town and Rural Planning Act of Alberta.

At that time the City had not resolved to prepare a general plan and was not taking full advantage of the provisions of the Act. Certain planning measures were, however, undertaken. In 1929 the City Council appointed a Planning Commission composed of aldermen and citizens at large to which was delegated the power to act in an advisory capacity in matters pertaining to town planning; to prepare an official town plan or scheme and to prepare a Zoning Bylaw. In the twenty years of its existence the Commission performed valuable services, the most important of which were the preparation of a major street plan in 1932 and the preparation of a Zoning Bylaw in 1933.

By 1949, however, the physical growth of the City and the advances in planning technic had made both of these instruments obsolete. Moreover, the Planning Commission was no longer able adequately to cope with its responsibilities—the City had outgrown the Commission form of planning.

On the recommendation of the consultants the City embarked on a planning program and proceeded to establish an administrative organization based on the principles they advocated. A Town Planner was appointed in October, 1949 and since that date the administration of planning has proceeded on his advice. By 1952 the staff of the Town Planning Department had expanded to sixteen full-time employees and the annual budget exceeded $60,000.00.

The City formally resolved to prepare a general plan in May, 1950 and then put into effect the measure recommended by the consultants, – the Interim Development Bylaw[1] and the Technical Planning Board Bylaw[2] under authority of the Town and Rural Planning Act of Alberta[3], and under authority of the Interim Development Order[4], issued by the Minister of Public Works pursuant to the Planning Act.

The principle underlying these measures is that the administration of planning during the period of the preparation of the general plan is a critical factor in determining the content of the plan that is finally adopted, and the success that is achieved in its implementation.

When the new planning program was introduced in Edmonton, it was assumed that after the general plan was adopted, that it would be implemented by the coordinated efforts of all civic departments who would be

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1 Interim Development Bylaw, No. 1339 passed 18th July, 1950.
2 Technical Planning Board Bylaw, No. 1354 passed 10th December, 1950.
3 Town and Rural Planning Act of the Province of Alberta, being Chapter 169 of the revised Statutes of Alberta 1942 with amendments to 1950.
4 In the matter of the Town and Rural Planning Act being Chapter 169 of the revised Statutes of Alberta 1942 and amendments thereto and in the matter of the City of Edmonton, a municipal corporation Interim Development Order dated July 18th, 1950.

guided by it in all of their undertakings which were directly or indirectly related to the growth and physical development of the City and by the control and guidance of all private development in accordance with the pattern and standards of land use described by the plan.

The administration of planning in the interim period was therefore directed at assuring that the general plan would be implemented in these two ways. The primary consideration in working out the measures to achieve this objective was that *the principles of planning as well as the details of the general plan should be introduced gradually so that through practice, example and experience the elements of planning could be assimilated and support and understanding could be developed to the level at which it could be assured that once the general plan was adopted that it would also be implemented.* This is the alternative to the method of planning by which a general plan is presented as a "fait accompli" to the public and their civic administration who are then not prepared to implement it because they have not been given a fair opportunity to develop an understanding and support for planning.

THE CIVIC ORGANIZATION FOR PLANNING

The organization of the civic administration for planning during the interim period was based on the objective of making planning a continuous function of municipal management which would simplify and co-ordinate the efforts of the civic administration by establishing common goals for the physical development of the city.

To give effect to the principle, an amendment to the Town Planning Act was secured for this purpose—a Technical Planning Board was appointed by the City Council in December, 1950. According to the Act, the Council can authorize the Board to prepare a general plan, official schemes and a zoning by-law; to advise Council on planning matters and to promote public interest in planning. The Board is composed of the Mayor, one city commissioner[5], the City Solicitor, City Engineer, Medical Officer of Health, Town Planner, City Architect and Inspector of Buildings, Superintendent of Parks and Superintendent of the Transit System.

The terms of reference of the Board are that it is to act as a co-ordinating board on all technical and administrative matters concerning the development of the City.

It is the duty of the Board during the period of interim development to ensure that when they agree on the principles that will underlie the preparation of the General Plan, that all proposals for development and the administrative procedure that is connected therewith shall conform to these principles and that no proposals with which the various departments are separately concerned shall be initiated without proper consideration of their bearing upon the preparation of the General Plan.

The Town Planner is specifically mentioned as the member of the Board to whom the duty may be delegated to compile the basic data and carry out the surveys and investigations that may be necessary for the preparation of the plan, to present to the Board outline planning proposals which they may require to initiate their deliberations, to prepare the final proposals of the General Plan and Zoning By-law for approval of the Board and recommendation to Council, to promote public interest in planning and in all these activities to work in conjunction with the departments concerned.

THE STATUTORY AUTHORITY FOR INTERIM DEVELOPMENT CONTROL

To exercise adequate powers it was necessary to secure an amendment to the Town and Rural Planning Act. The Act already made some recognition of the need for special powers during the interim period. Section 27 of the Act stated that:

"Prior to a passage of a zoning by-law or prior to the passage of an amendment of a zoning by-law if application therefore has been made, the Council may for a period not exceeding fourteen weeks withhold, or authorize its proper officer to withhold, a building permit for any building, or the Council may impose such conditions on the granting of the building permit as may appear to the Council to be in the public interest."

This section, however, does not contemplate the extended powers which it is intended that the local authority should exercise during the interim period. Accordingly, the Act was amended by the 1950 legislature to include the following:

"SECTION 12A

1. Upon the passage of a resolution providing for the preparation of a general plan, the local or rural authority shall forward to the Minister:—
   (a) A certified copy of the resolution; and
   (b) A description of the area for which the plan is to be prepared.

2. Upon the receipt of the resolution and description, the Minister may make an order to be known as an interim development order suspending the operation of any existing zoning by-law, and authorizing the local or rural authority to exercise control over such development as may take place within the described area prior to the coming into effect of the General Plan.

3. An interim development order shall:—
   (a) Prescribe the powers to be exercised by the local or rural authority; and
   (b) Prescribe the manner in which the order is to be administered with respect to the control of interim development; and

[5] The administration of the city is delegated by Council to two city managers called the Finance Commissioner and Utility Commissioner who, together with the elected mayor, form the managing commission board.

Edmonton, airport in background

NFB Photo

(c) Contain provision for appeal to the Provincial Planning Advisory Board against any decision of the local or rural authority."

The Act was further amended by the 1951 Legislature to provide that the local authority was not liable for compensation because of the enactment and enforcement of interim development control.

THE INTERIM DEVELOPMENT ORDER

Following receipt of the resolution of City Council to plan, the Minister made an order in July, 1950 which suspended the operation of the Edmonton Zoning By-law and at the same time required that no development be undertaken within the city without proper authorization. The order empowered Council:

"(a) To authorize unconditionally, or subject to such condition as it sees fit or refuse to authorize any development for which application is made.

(b) To authorize any development for a limited time and require that at the expiry of that time, the land or building so developed be returned to its original condition.

(c) To make rules and regulations for any of the purposes ordinarily dealt with by a zoning by-law.

(d) To revoke or modify any permission to develop provided the Provincial Planning Advisory Board consents to same, and provided further that the Council is required to pay compensation for claims filed within twelve months of such action.

(e) To delegate its authority to its officials.

(f) To impose the same penalties for an infraction against a decision made under authority of the order as could be imposed for an infraction of a zoning by-law."

The order further required that Council keep a register of all applications for development, and enter the conditions of consent or reasons for refusal of each application.

For the purpose of the order, development was defined as the making of any change in the use of any building or of any land by way of building, engineering, mining, or other physical operations, and without restricting this generality, it was further defined as:

"(a) Any alterations or additions made with the object of increasing the number of dwelling units within a building or on a site;

(b) Any alterations or additions made with the object of increasing the capacity of a building or site or which would tend to increase the intensity of use of the building or site;

(c) The display of advertisements on the exterior of any building or on any land which is not presently being used for this purpose; and

(d) The deposit of debris, waste material from building or mining operations or other refuse or unsightly material on any land, whether such land is or is not part of a site already being used for that purpose, if the superficial area or height of any existing deposit is thereby extended."

THE INTERIM DEVELOPMENT BY-LAW

In a city of Edmonton's size it is not possible for Council, as such, to deal with every application for development. It was therefore necessary to enact a by-law setting out the manner in which the powers conferred by the Interim Development Order were to be exercised. The first draft by-law provided that all applications should be made to the interim development officer (town planner), that he could dispose of the applications as he saw fit by granting or refusing permission, or by granting permisison conditionally or for a limited period of time, that an appeal could be made against any decision of the officer to the Interim Development Appeal Board, (I.D.A.B.) consisting of one alderman, one member from the public at large and one member from each of the following organizations: The Alberta Association of Architects, the Alberta Land Surveyors Association, the Edmonton Real Estate Association, the Association of Professional Engineers of the Province of Alberta, and the Law Society of Alberta, that an appeal could be made against any decision of the I.D.A.B. to the Provincial Planning Advisory Board.

Certain members of Council objected to this proposal. They argued that it placed far too great a responsibility on the Officer. On the other hand it was argued that it was only the Officer who could properly guide development during the interim period and that the public was adequately protected against the possibility of the Officer abusing his powers by two levels of appeal. The point of contention finally narrowed itself to the fact that some councillors felt that they would be remiss in their duty to the public unless they specifically approved all development which involved a change in use classification from that which existed under the old Zoning By-law. To achieve this purpose it was necessary to append the old Zoning By-law as a schedule to the Interim Development By-law and the By-law was finally adopted in this form.

All applications which involve a change in use-classification are referred to the I.D.A.B. for their approval and recommendation to Council with the exception that the application may be made directly to Council when it is proposed by the Officer and he is satisfied that no persons will be injuriously affected or when the change is proposed by a private party and has the approval of the Officer and the consent of the abutting property owners.

Insofar as the Officer is concerned, this procedure simplifies his administrative duties and relieves him of direct responsibility and criticism for many of the major decisions which he must make. The by-law also provides that in cases where a development involves a major principle of the evolving General Plan which has not as yet been resolved, that the proposal may be referred to the Technical Planning Board for their consideration and recommendation.

Insofar as the general public is concerned this procedure could be criticized for the delay that it involves. In fact, however, the meetings of the I.D.A.B. and those of City Council are so timed that under the worst circumstances the delay in issuing a development permit is seldom greater than three weeks.

To enable the Officer to issue development permits in accordance with the evolving status of the General Plan, each permit is valid for only three months. If the development is not commenced within that period a new permit must be obtained which is then issued subject to the status of the plan at that time.

THE INTERIM DEVELOPMENT APPEAL BOARD

In the eighteen months of operation of the Interim Development by-law, an average of one hundred development permits have been issued each month of which a little more than 10% have been appealed. The following is a summary of the provisions of the by-law with respect to the operation of the Interim Development Appeal Board.

The hearings of the Board are open to the public, but the Board may deliberate and reach its decisions in private. The procedure is informal but the Board does have the right to require that evidence be given under oath. An appeal must be taken within fifteen days of the decision of the Officer. A fee of five dollars must be paid with each appeal that is filed. The appellant must, at that

time, make a statement of the points on which his appeal is based.

The Board must give five days' notice of the date of its hearing to the appellant and to owners of neighboring property which may be deemed to be affected. In addition, the appellant must post a notice for five days in a conspicuous place on his property stating the time of hearing and purpose of the appeal.

The decisions of the Board are by a majority vote of the members present at any one meeting. They may grant any appeal in whole or in part, or they may impose such conditions as they may deem fit, or they may dismiss any appeal. In those cases where permission is granted for a limited period of time, the Board or the Officer may require that a bond be posted to ensure that the land or buildings will be returned to their original status.

The terms of reference of the Board are that they should give due consideration to the intent and purpose of the by-law and of the Interim Development Order, and that they shall deal with each case in such a manner as will best promote orderly, economic and convenient development in conformity with the basic principles of the evolving General Plan and that the public convenience and welfare will be served.

THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF INTERIM DEVELOPMENT CONTROL

From the inception of Interim Development the major portion of private building has been in planned extensions to the urban area. Interim development is an essential instrument in ensuring that the development of these areas conforms to the plans which have been adopted. In the older built up areas, interim control has been used to encourage development in conformity with the principles of the evolving General Plan for specific purposes such as the following:

1. An indiscriminate mixture of land uses has been prevented by prohibiting development of a higher amenity into those areas which appear certain to be zoned for a lower amenity. For example, where it appears obvious that an area will be designated in the General Plan for commercial or industrial use, no residential development is permitted. This is in distinction to the old Zoning Code which permitted such an intermixture.

2. Improved standards of bulk and space about buildings have been applied. The density of residential development has been controlled by establishing minimum lot sizes and maximum population densities.

3. Highway congestion has been relieved by making the provision of off-street loading and parking a condition of permission to develop.

4. Restrictions and reservations have been applied to protect future highway widening projects and diversions and improved traffic intersections where the evolving General Plan indicates that they will be required.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF INTERIM DEVELOPMENT CONTROL

The administration of interim development control requires special technical and administrative skills to ensure, that the powers conferred on the local authority are not misused or applied arbitrarily, and that the stigma of bureaucracy is not attached to the operation of the control.

Technical planning skill is fundamental to the administration of interim control. Each application for development can be considered equitably only in relation to the technical principles of the evolving General Plan. Without adequate technical resources, interim development control becomes uninformed arbitrary guesswork, which defeats the whole purpose of planning.

Administrative skill is essential to make interim development control acceptable to the public and to their representatives on Council, and to prevent the stigma of bureaucracy. The essential qualities of a wise administration are:

1. A careful understanding of the wishes of each individual applicant for development.
2. A clear and detailed explanation to him of the planning principles involved in his application.
3. A prompt and firm decision by the Officer.
4. Suggested alternatives to the applicant where they are deemed advisable.

As a result of the fact that a considerable portion of the development of the city during the interim period has been in planned areas on land which was municipally owned, it has been possible to arrange for land exchanges between the City and private owners who wish to develop their land in areas which have not as yet been planned, or where, for any number of reasons, the location is unsuitable or of doubtful suitability for the purposes proposed. In all cases where the Officer considers that his decisions may cause undue hardship to private owners, an earnest attempt is made to effect a suitable exchange of properties. This has had a major effect in easing the administrative difficulties of interim development control.

To operate the control in Edmonton, where approximately 5,000 building permits were issued last year, there is a staff of one secretary, who is also the secretary of the Interim Development Appeal Board, two clerks and one Assistant Interim Development Officer to whom the main administrative burden has been delegated.

It is essential that this staff have a clear understanding of the principles of planning so that they can treat all enquiries and applications for development intelligently. Not only must they know when they can commit themselves as to the granting of permission to develop, but they must also know when they cannot commit themselves and must refer the application to the Assistant Interim Development Officer, or to the Officer, for his decision.

From the record of the percentage of applicants that have appealed the decisions of the Officer, it is obvious that in the vast majority of cases applications for development are approved without any serious disagreement.

From the inception of interim development control, there has been consistent publicity to real estate interests, architects, builders, etc. as well as to the public at large advising them to consult the Town Planning Department before considering any building project or the purchase of any land for specific development. This is essential if order and stability are to be maintained in the real estate and building business. The objective is that town planning considerations should be applied in advance of any business decisions instead of afterwards when they may be the cause of disagreement with the local authority and hardship for the individual.

The work of continuous reply, advice and guidance is a major aspect of the administration.

Interim Development control can only work when the conditions of consent or refusal as the case may be, are actually enforced in the field. Since all development requires not only planning permission, but also a building permit from the Building Inspector's Department, it has been left to the force of Building Inspectors to enforce the decisions of the Officer in the field. In the event of contravention of the terms of either the Development or Building Permit, the accused parties have been subject to prosecution. With the advent of interim development control, there has been a considerable tightening up of building and planning regulations and a consequent increase in prosecutions of violators of these regulations. To cope with this aspect of the work and to ensure that the planning and building regulations are actually carried out, it has been decided to appoint an enforcement officer to act jointly with the Development Officer and the Building Inspector to prosecute offenders of the planning and building by-laws.

It is obvious from the foregoing that the main emphasis in creating good public relations, that is, support and understanding of the planning activities in Edmonton, has been by actual example of what planning involves and by the gradual introduction of planning measures. In addition to this, it has of course proven necessary to embark on a positive program of public relations. For this purpose the town planner and his staff have addressed civic groups and organizations at frequent intervals; and the department has assisted in preparing a number of displays and exhibitions. The most significant development for the creation of good public relations has been the recent formation of a local Branch of the Community Planning Association of Canada which is now pursuing an active program. The indications are that the C.P.A.C. will make an important contribution to public understanding and support for planning, and that the planners will thereby be influenced by public sentiment and expression.

CONCLUSION

The techniques that have been adopted in Edmonton are new in Canada. Their successful implementation during the past two years deserves careful study. Already the City of Calgary, and five of the local authorities which are members of the Calgary District Planning Commission, and nine of the local authorities which are members of the Edmonton District Planning Commission, as well as three other towns in the province have applied for the power to enact similar measures. It would appear, therefore, that the planning activities recently initiated in Edmonton will make an important contribution to the development of a distinctly Canadian urban planning process.

The experiences of the City of Edmonton to date have proven that the organizational principles that have been outlined are unquestionably correct and, that by adopting these principles, support and understanding of planning is being developed within the civic administration through practice, example and experience. This is substantiated by the fact that considerable progress has been made in preparing the surveys and technical details for the General Plan, and that the principles and detailed portions of the General Plan on which there is agreement have been adopted and put into practice. The most important achievements to date have been:

1. That sporadic extensions to the fringe of the City have been virtually eliminated and all major new developments have been built according to new plans of subdivision, land use, and highways, within natural use areas according to the evolving general plan, and
2. All developments regardless of their location, have required planning permission which has been either granted or refused on the basis or the relation of the proposed development to the evolving general plan.

In both cases it has been possible to adopt and implement certain principles and detailed portions of the plan because they have been considered individually, and the obstacles to their implementation have been slowly and carefully resolved on an individual day to day basis. The essence of the argument for the method of planning which has been instituted in Edmonton is that there would be much less likelihood of the very same proposals being adopted if they were presented together with every other proposal of the general plan, so that the total obstacles to their adoption would become insurmountable. In Edmonton it is anticipated that, by the time it is possible to present a concrete formulation of the general plan, many of the obstacles to its implementation will already have been resolved, and that the remaining obstacles will not prevent the adoption and implementation of the plan because, by that time, there will be understanding and support for planning resulting from the experience of the interim period.

La construction d'un chemin de fer au travers de Terre-Neuve contribua au développement du centre et de l'ouest du pays. Des industries considérables s'installèrent pour développer le bois et les mines. Tout naturellement, ces Companies érigèrent des logements qui devinrent des petites villes avec ce que l'auteur nomme des "villes parasites", ces dernières exigeant des services sans vouloir les payer. La tendance va vers l'abandon de l'administration par les Compagnies ce qui force les "parasites" à accepter une autorité municipale. M. W. C. Wonders, assistant professeur de géographie à l'Université de Toronto, connait bien le pays dont il parle et fait ressortir l'individualiste qu'est le "Terre-Neuvas".

PARASITE COMMUNITIES OF NEWFOUNDLAND

by William C. Wonders*

THE Newfoundland of tradition is changing rapidly. For centuries settlement was based upon the fishery. This plus the inhospitable interior of the island effected a strikingly peripheral settlement pattern. Even today, 90% of the population still lives on or near the coast,[1] but no longer is the sea the sole source of livelihood. Completion of the trans-island railway 50 years ago, opened the interior to exploitation.

Development of forest and mineral resources by large companies directed attention increasingly to the interior and particularly to western Newfoundland. Settlements of the "company town" type were established and employment possibilities drew people into the area. The major centres thus established were Grand Falls on the Exploits River, Corner Brook on Humber Arm of the Bay of Islands, Buchans in the interior, and Aguathuna on the Port au Port Peninsula. The first two were mill towns for the pulp and paper industry,[2] the latter two mining centres (of lead-zinc, and limestone, respectively). In recent years the construction of Harmon Field, the U.S.A.F. base at Stephenville on Bay St. George may be regarded as a similar development insofar as its effects on settlement are concerned. The coming of the large companies resulted in the major challenge to the predominance of the fishing industry, the coastal settlements, and the Avalon Peninsula.

The company towns brought with them many problems hitherto unknown in Newfoundland. The most noteworthy was the growth of "parasite communities" nearby, over which the companies had no direct control. There were several reasons for such developments. A major factor was the lack of sufficient housing in the company townsites to provide for the needs of the community, or in the case of the air base, the lack of responsibility to provide permanent housing for civilians. A very important factor in Newfoundland was the traditional dislike of the individual for paying rent or taxes, regardless of how nominal they might be. This dislike

Corner Brook West from townsite
Mines and Technical Surveys Photo

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[1] Gutsell, B. V. An Introduction to the Geography of Newfoundland, Canada, Dept. of Mines and Resources, Geographical Bureau, Ottawa, 1949, p.65.

[2] The pulp and paper industry particularly has been responsible for many other settlements in western Newfoundland, but this paper is concerned only with the two major centres.

was reflected in a reluctance to assume any collective municipal responsibility and the determination of each man to "be his own boss". To these should be added the attraction of the new town for non-company employees who came as small shopkeepers, or part-time workers, or merely hangers-on. They were excluded by the legislature from the townsite because of the cost of meeting the company's minimum building requirements, or because of company policy.

Buchans and Aguathuna, unlike the other company towns, do not have parasite communities appended to them. In the case of the former, its remote situation on the interior barrens and the fact that a private company-owned railway provides the only land communication with the rest of the island, have combined with stringent company policy to exclude non-employees from the area. At Aguathuna, quarrying is highly mechanized and seasonal so that the work force is comparatively small. Fishing-farming settlements already existed in the area to provide labour when necessary, but have been little disturbed by the company's activities.

The immediate local effect of the establishment of company towns in most cases was to create settlements where none had existed previously. Examples of this are Buchans and Aguathuna, Grand Falls and its parasite community Windsor, Corner Brook and its parasite communities Corner Brook West and Corner Brook East. In others, the establishment of company towns imparted a new character to already existing settlements in the area. People from the fishing community of Curling and the railway centre of Humbermouth found an additional source of employment in Corner Brook. The air base at Stephenville incorporated much farm land, completely displaced the former centre of that farming-fishing settlement, and transformed it into a parasite community dependent for its existence upon the base.

With the growth of company towns and parasite communities, many problems emerged. Compared with the well ordered planned expansion of the townsite, the parasite community grew in confusion, each newcomer building wherever and in whatever manner he chose. Dwellings, the majority only shacks, were crammed almost atop one another in some sectors, while in others they were spaced at great distances into the surrounding countryside. The contrast between the two communities became more and more pronounced, a contrast reflected in the hostility of the inhabitants. Those within the townsite disdained the shacktown on their borders, and those outside the townsite regarded it with equal contempt as a symbol of servitude and snobbery.

Although the two communities seem to have widened the gap between them, in actuality their interdependence has increased. The townsite was unable to expand its housing facilities sufficiently rapidly to meet increasing labour needs in some cases. The Corner Brook mill for

Corner Brook, new TB sanatorium

Mines and Technical Surveys Photo

example, draws most of its employees from *outside* the townsite, 50% coming from Corner Brook West alone. The Stephenville air base relies on labour from outside its limits to meet not only construction and repair needs, but many services and clerical requirements also. Only Grand Falls is largely independent of its parasite community in the direct operations of the company. Another example of interlocking interests in the communities is the growth of commercial establishments in the parasite community. This is particularly striking in Corner Brook West and in Windsor. In both cases, through necessity, the company has permitted certain stores, to be established within townsite limits, but high building standards again restricted this development. The small businessman often was forced to locate in the parasite community. Lacking any company subsidy, many proved to be aggressive merchants who challenged their larger competitors in the townsite. Gradually they have improved their stock and stores until now many have large businesses. Though the commercial functions of the company towns continue, the local population, including most townsite people, usually shops as much in the parasite community as in the company town. The increasing interdependence is reflected also in the establishment of privately owned bus services between the communities.

Continued growth of the parasite communities with total disregard for any restrictions, building, sanitary or otherwise, and the complete absence of even the basic public services, inevitably has precipitated crises. In Windsor, in Corner Brook West, and to a large degree in Corner Brook East, living conditions became so deplorable that collective action became necessary for the communities. Alarmed officials in St. John's saw incorporation as the only solution to the problem. Against strong local opposition, this step was enacted as recently as 1942 for Windsor and Corner Brook West (which thus became the first incorporated town outside the capital),

and in 1948 for Corner Brook East. Even in Stephenville, increasing local problems have forced the establishment of a businessman's association.

Antagonism to taxation and regulation is still strong in the newly incorporated parasite communities and only limited services can be provided. The companies have furnished electricity and water where a surplus is available. In fact, integration of the communities, company and parasite, is proceeding slowly but inevitably, despite opposition from both camps. Since the companies have expressed a desire to concentrate solely upon business and withdraw gradually from town administration, it is evident that amalgamation of company and parasite communities is but a question of time. (Stephenville will remain separate from the air base, of course).

The coming of the large companies to western Newfoundland is thus significant in another sense. Against the centuries-old tradition of independence and private ownership without taxation, the outlook of the property holder gradually is being changed. This change is being effected slowly and against bitter opposition, but whether it takes place in company town or parasite community, it is resulting in the development of a new sense of municipal responsibility in Newfoundland.

BOOK REVIEWS

LA VILLE

par Pierre George*

L'urbaniste, tout autant que le sociologue ou le géographe, trouvera un immense profit à la lecture et à l'analyse de l'important ouvrage que le géographe français Pierre George vient de publier sur *la ville*. S'il ne s'agit pas du premier ouvrage général sur le sujet—l'auteur lui-même rappelle les travaux de G. Chabot, de P. Lavedan, par exemple—, le livre nous paraît être l'étude la plus riche, par la méthode qu'elle propose et par la documentation qu'elle rassemble, que nous possédions sur le fait urbain.

C'est à un voyage à travers les villes du monde que nous invite l'auteur, mais à un voyage ordonné. L'ordre de l'itinéraire répond aux prescriptions de la méthode qu'il élabore dans la première partie de son livre.

Le fait urbain est universel, mais il n'a pas partout la même intensité. L'inégalité et la diversité du développement urbain sont des phénomènes étroitement liés à l'histoire et, plus particulièrement, aux divers aspects des systèmes économiques et sociaux qui moulent la vie des collectivités. Ainsi, c'est par le recours à l'histoire générale et par l'analyse des structures économiques et sociales qu'il sera possible d'atteindre à une présentation du "fait urbain", qui soit autre chose que "l'image abstraite d'une ville théorique".

Suivant cette perspective, Pierre George distingue cinq "grandes séries urbaines": les villes nées dans les économies rurales à échanges peu développés; les villes commerçantes de l'ère précapitaliste, généralement incorporées à de nouveaux processus d'évolution, à l'avénement de l'économie industrielle; les villes nées de la révolution industrielle et du capitalisme: vieilles villes transformées de l'Europe ou créations de l'Amérique; les villes de colonisation; les villes socialistes, répondant "à une forme originale d'organisation de la production, de la distribution et de l'équipement social". Des deux premières catégories, il ne subsiste que des témoins très rares (v.g. La Mecque). Seules les trois dernières classes intéresseront l'auteur; à l'intérieur de chacun de ces groupes majeurs, il proposera divers types, types purs ou types de transition.

Avant d'étaler, sous des titres correspondant aux trois dernières catégories mentionnées, un nombre imposant

* "*LA VILLE. Le fait urbain à travers le monde.*" Paris, Presses Universitaires de France, 1952, 400 pages (26 cartes et 8 planches hors-texte).

de monographies, Pierre George a précisé les préceptes de méthode qui, selon lui, doivent guider l'étude urbaine. Il faut d'abord situer la ville par rapport au réseau urbain tout entier, et caractériser l'évolution générale du pays et de la région, avant d'entreprendre l'étude locale. Cette étude portera successivement sur les "éléments physionomiques"—les types d'habitations, le plan, la position et le site—et sur l'activité de la ville—activité sociale et professionnelle, influence et rayonnement. A la fois pour le sociologue ou le géographe qui veut s'attacher à l'étude d'une agglomération urbaine et pour l'urbaniste, préoccupé d'adapter les fonctions urbaines aux exigences de la vie humaine, cette méthode, qui en appelle à l'histoire, à la sociologie et à l'analyse économique, nous paraît d'une remarquable valeur. Retenons-en le schéma: "L'histoire générale, la connaissance des systèmes économiques et sociaux, de leur genèse et de leur répartition dans le monde actuel, fournissent l'argument de la classification d'ensemble et de l'explication des types urbains. La géographie régionale et locale, l'histoire régionale et locale assurent l'intelligence exacte des processus d'évolution de chaque organisme urbain, placé au préalable dans le cadre général de la catégorie de villes à laquelle il appartient" (p. 27).

Impossible de résumer le "tour du monde" que nous fait accomplir la lecture de "la ville". Les villes-types, les métropoles—Paris, Londres, Montréal, New York, Buenos-Aires, Damas, Casablanca, Calcutta, Tokyo, Moscou, Vienne, Prague, etc.—font l'object de monographies parfois très élaborées, parfois sommaires, mais toujours intéressantes. Il est bien sûr que toutes ces analyses ne sont pas fondées sur une documentation de première main; il n'en reste pas moins qu'elles condensent en quelques centaines de pages une information très précieuse, auparavant éparse dans de multiples études isolées. Sous cet aspect, le livre de Pierre George—qui s'accompagne d'ailleurs de cartes nettement dessinées et d'un appareil bibliographique soigné—se présente comme l'instrument de travail le plus à jour sur le sujet.

Le géographe fait ici, comme il se doit, une large place à l'urbanisme: aux réalisations et aux projets des urbanistes, aux conditions qui leur sont faites. On le verra par les quelques traits caractéristiques que nous extrayons de la partie analytique de l'ouvrage.

Les villes d'Europe sont des organismes complexes, termes d'une évolution souvent très longue. La ville moderne demeure un "milieu d'archaïsmes"; à cause particulièrement des frais d'expropriation, de la résistance du bâti, "la forme survit longtemps à la fonction". L'empirisme libéral a livré à l'initiative privée et au libre jeu de la spéculation, la construction urbaine: il en est résulté un zoning social spontané que l'intervention récente des pouvoirs publics tente de corriger et de systématiser. Devant les forces de la spéculation, à cause aussi d'un plan imposé en partie par l'"héritage millénaire", l'urbanisme dirigé demeure faible.

La ville américaine, conséquence de l'expansion européenne au XIXe siècle, n'a pas eu à adapter aux nouvelles formes d'organisation matérielle l'héritage d'un long passé. "La ville neuve réalise presque toujours l'unité entre la fonction ou les fonctions qui l'ont créée et son rôle actuel. Elle est affranchie des servitudes héritées de soucis périmés, fréquentes dans les villes européennes, comme l'installation sur un ancien site défensif difficile à aménager en fonction de la vie urbaine actuelle. Elle est un produit de la libre initiative et de la concurrence, une création d'un système audacieux, volontiers opulent, mais aussi très dur pour ceux qui sont en dehors du jeu ou qui ont perdu au jeu. Il ne saurait donc être question d'homogénéité ou d'uniformité interne" (p. 218.). Ici, le plan est simple, les "zones sociales" à peu près partout identiques: le centre où s'entassent les populations ouvrières derrière les grands édifices financiers ou commerciaux; quatre auréoles concentriques autour du centre, symbolisant les diverses phases d'expansion de la ville. P. George reprend ici le schéma de Burgess—valable, à coup sûr, comme schéma typique. En Amérique du Sud, le centre des villes retient, au contraire, les riches propriétaires; les caractères urbains se dégradent du centre vers la périphérie; l'urbanisme affronte là des problèmes aussi élémentaires que la distribution de l'eau, de l'électricité.

L'étude de l'évolution urbaine en U.R.S.S. et dans les démocraties populaires offre un intérêt particulier—même si la sympathie de l'auteur pour le régime socialiste y est évidente. En économie socialiste, l'originalité de l'urbanisme tient aux trois objectifs principaux qui doivent présider au développement urbain. L'idéal d'une société sans classes se traduit par un urbanisme démocratique: quartiers résidentiels équivalents, habitat indifférencié, situation centrale des bâtiments de service. De la prépondérance des fonctions de production sur les fonctions de transmission doivent résulter la centralisation des fonctions commerciales et l'agencement spatial du couple fabriques—quartiers résidentiels. Enfin, l'aménagement de "villes agricoles" découle logiquement de le décision politique suivant laquelle la fonction agricole est désormais considérée comme une fonction urbaine.

Ces quelques notes devraient suffire à marquer l'envergure de l'oeuvre de Pierre George, en même temps que l'apport considérable qu'elle constitue pour les diverses disciplines dont la ville est le lieu de convergence. "Si l'urbanisme est en avance sur la géographie"—comme le souligne l'auteur—, les perspectives et les plans qu'elle élabore entrant plus ou moins rapidement dans la réalité, l'urbaniste attend du géographe—surtout de celui qui tient compte de la perspective sociologique, comme c'est le cas de Pierre George—qu'il lui fournisse des données précises sur la réalité qu'il a dessein d'ordonner.

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TRAFFIC CONTROL AND ROAD ACCIDENT PREVENTION

Capt. Athelstan Popkess, O.B.E.*

"Traffic Control and Road Accident Prevention" is primarily a policeman's treatise of the subject. In this book Captain Popkess tells quite effectively a great deal about the various facets of the traffic situation and covers very thoroughly and with considerable detail those phases which particularly concern the police. The author expresses the seriousness of the traffic situation and the need for its recogntion in the foreword where he says, "Up to December, 1944, 370,000 British people were killed and injured on all fronts in the last war. During the same period 588,000 people were killed and injured on our roads in motoring accidents. No country can afford such wastage. How can it be stopped? The first thing to do is to understand something of the problem."

Impliedly Captain Popkess feels that much will be accomplished by spreading the traffic gospel and in this undoubtedly he is right.

Unfortunately books of this kind are usually read only by persons who already, to a lesser or greater degree, are aware of the situation, and to most people who have been concerned with traffic control and the accident problem the course of action and the remedial measures necessary have been known for some time.

What we would like to be told is how to make the average adult driver and pedestrian read and digest a little of what has been written on this subject. As might be expected the author offers no new thought on how to convince John Q. Public of the importance of the traffic situation and how essential is his understanding. This is not a criticism, however, because most of us who have had any great amount of experience in this field long ago concluded that adult education is pretty much a lost cause; that in child training lies the only real hope of bringing about an informed public in which motorists have proper driving habits, courtesy, tolerance, etc. not because of the threat of a policeman but because they believe in the rightfulness of such behaviour.

Captain Popkess deals at great length with accident reporting and analysis and gives a comprehensive outline of procedure for officers attending accidents. A section has been devoted to the hit-and-run driver, which has always been a problem child of the police.

The importance of evidence is stressed. The author points out the needs of the Law in this regard and follows up with some good instructions to aid officers in looking for and obtaining usable evidence in identifying the missing vehicles so that subsequent prosecutions may prove successful.

British Law governing traffic offences is covered very fully. Many cases are cited in illustration which, while related to the situation in the British Isles, should be of considerable interest to Canadian police officials and prosecutors. The author has also embraced in this treatise some of the technical aspects. Road design is briefly touched upon. Street lighting has received quite a lot of attention. He deals with the coefficient of friction of road surfaces and braking efficiency, skid marks and the method used to determine the speed of vehicles from the length of the skid mark made by them.

Most of Captain Popkess' references to the technical or engineering aspect are stated so that they may be followed by persons not technically trained. This material is good.

There is no doubt in my mind, however, that such matters should not be left to untrained personnel. Road design and street lighting for example should be handled by engineers who are trained, experienced and familiar with the scientific developments in these fields. There is always the danger, and probably traffic suffers more in this regard than any other science, that unqualified persons with a smattering of the technical information presented in books of this kind become self-appointed experts and make the task of those competent to handle the technical work more difficult.

In view of the importance of the parking problem one feels that the author might have more fully discussed this aspect of the traffic situation.

Similarly insufficient emphasis is placed on traffic training in the schools. Captain Popkess speaks of the value of propaganda in all its forms and refers also to gratifying results brought about by increased use in "road safety propaganda activities" in schools, but quickly dismisses the subject with this brief mention.

On the North American Continent traffic training has formed part of the curriculum in many schools and in an increasing number of cases this training is being supplemented by driver training courses which include behind-the-wheel sessions. There can be no doubt that school courses of this kind will prove more productive than any other single phase of the education activities and should therefore receive greater attention.

In total this book deals quite comprehensively with the various factors which together form our present-day traffic picture. The information and data it contains will be enlightening to people interested in the traffic problem. It should prove particularly useful to police officials and others concerned with the traffic problem in smaller communities where traffic control has not reached the stage which requires the attention of personnel specially trained and experienced in this field.

KENNETH VAUGHN-BIRCH

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* British Book Service (Canada) Ltd., 263-267 Adelaide St. W., Toronto, Ontario. ($7.50)

PARIS: NAISSANCE ET MECONNAISSANCE DE L'URBANISME

Gaston Bardet*

DANS les tout derniers mots de sa conclusion l'auteur nous dit que la naissance de l'urbanisme—science sociale—est le plus clair symptôme du désordre urbain; que, cependant, sous le regard objectif de l'historien, on peut trouver les raisons de cette décadence et, enrichi de toutes les traditions, faire naître un nouvel urbanisme.

L'auteur, urbaniste bien connu des lecteurs, sociologue et philosophe chrétien, se montre à nous dans ce livre sous l'habit de l'historien. Historien objectif? Disons français. Il possède évidemment son Paris à fond, et c'est sur cet immense corps encore vivant qu'il va d'un scalpel pénétrant, pratiquer sa dissection.

Le premier livre: "Source des tracés urbains classiques" traite du sujet en général et devrait être lu par quiconque s'intéresse à l'urbanisme. On y voit le développement de l'artiste du Moyen Age, construisant sans plan mais en pleine sympathie avec le cadre, le paysage, l'environnement humain, (cf. les vieux villages québecois) être remplacé par celui de la Renaissance qui importe le style, construit sur papier, se 'geométrise'. (Ici on construit sur magazine)!

L'auteur commente les principaux théoriciens de l'urbanisme—cite des textes ravissants comme ceci d'Alberti (1404-1472): . . ."qu'il ne faut seulement arrester aux pourtraictz des plattes formes qui s'en trassent sur le papier, mais faire dresser un modelle d'aix de bois, papier, ou autre chose propre, au moyen de quoy se puissent veoir au naturel les figures et proportion de toutes les parties: lequel modelle sera communiqué à gens experts pour avoir leur opinion là-dessus: afin que l'ouvrage accomply l'entrepreneur ne tombe en repentaille".

Voici comment Elie Vinet (XVIe) juge les arpenteurs: il n'en a ". . . encore guère veu. . . qui sussent pour passablement fère ce mestier. Car premièrement, ils ne savent ni lire, ni escrire, presque tous. . . secondement, non plus entre ceus, qui se savent aider de la plume, qu'entre les autres, ne vi onques aucun qui seust de l'art de compter, ce qu'il en faut pour ce fait".

Le second livre s'intitule: "Le premier plan d'extension de Paris". Paris est encore à l'échelle de l'homme mais le roi s'inquiète de son extension.

Dans le troisième livre: "Les projets d'extension et d'embellissement de Paris sous Henri IV", Bardet nous parle des idées de ce roi "amy des bâtisseurs".

"Epanouissement de l'art urbain classique", titre du quatrième livre, nous montre ce qui se fait malgré l'absence de plan directeur.

"Mesquinerie du plan de Louis Moreau", "Le plan des artistes" et "Conclusion" sont les trois derniers livres.

Ajoutez des notes innombrables, 45 figures, une bibliographie très complète et une liste des pièces consultées, et vous avez un livre d'une grande érudition.

Sait-on que sous les papes, au 15e siècle, on note un mode d'expropriation qui prévoit une juste et raisonnable indemnité; que la plus value donnée à la propriété riveraine par la construction d'une route est récupérée par une taxe spéciale, "taxa jectiti", tandis que la nouvelle voirie se paie entre autres par des licences pour la circulation des véhicules? C'est sous Sixte Quint (1585-1590) qu'on voit apparaître le système polycentrique qui est encore d'un intérêt vital pour les grands centres urbains d'aujourd'hui. (L'auteur ne donne malheureusement pas la source du plan extrêmement intéressant projeté pour Jérusalem—figure 43—laquelle ville, vu son cosmopolitisme connu, pourrait fort bien être étudiée par ceux qu'intéresse le Montréal métropolitain).

On pourrait ainsi sortir de ce livre touffu une quantité de renseignements d'une grande valeur culturelle. Voici un texte de la conclusion:

> "Les sages conseils d'un Alberti, le sens des localisations d'un Dürer, les habiles compositions d'un Scamozzi, le réseau polycentrique de la Rome de Sixte-Quint, les possibilités de vision nouvelle et totale dues à la cartographie et à la perspective et, pour couronner tout cela, l'éclosion et le développement prestigieux et ultra-rapide de l'Art des Jardins, que de matériaux précieux, que de promesses! Mais l'humanisme n'est qu'un masque permettant aux sur-hommes de mieux mépriser l'homme.
>
> Les esprits systématiques imposeront la rigidité des 'ingénieurs dans la plaine', la centralisation outrancière, les rites du culte monarchique, des formules de plus en plus vidées de substance. A la fin, les Artistes se soumettront à la 'mire du géomètre' en attendant le 'tir en plein voyant' de l'artilleur Napoléon III."

Malgré notre grande sympathie pour tout ce qui vient de France, nous hésitons à suivre l'auteur dans la voie où il s'engage accompagné de Saint Rémy pour sauver l'urbanisme avec l'esprit français; ou bien alors son livre n'a qu'une valeur locale, ce qui serait fort dommage.

JACQUES SIMARD

* S.A.B.R.I. Editeur, 436 pages, $8.00

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